DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 444 416	HE 033 068

TITLE	Two Decades of Reform in Higher Education in Europe: 1980 Onwards. Eurydice Studies.
INSTITUTION	EURYDICE European Unit, Brussels (Belgium).
SPONS AGENCY	Commission of the European Communities, Brussels (Belgium). Directorate-General for Education and Culture.
REPORT NO	D/2000/4008/1
ISBN	ISBN-2-87116-292-1; ISBN-2-87116-296-4
PUB DATE	2000-05-00
NOTE	257p.; Also available in French. CD-ROM titled "National Descriptions of Higher Education Reforms between 1980 and 1998" is not available from ERIC. The authors of the comparative analysis are Angelika Harvey, Janet Hunter, and Arlette Delhaxhe.
CONTRACT	D/2000/4008/5
AVAILABLE FROM	EURYDICE European Unit, Rue d'Arlon 15, B-1050 Brussels, Belgium; Tel: 32-2-238-30-11; Fax: 32-2-230-65-62; e-mail: info@eurydice.org. For full text: http://www.eurydice.org.
PUB TYPE	Reports - Descriptive (141)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC11 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Access to Education; Block Grants; College Admission; Curriculum Development; *Educational Change; Educational Finance; Educational Legislation; Educational Policy; Evaluation Methods; Foreign Countries; Governance; *Higher Education; Nontraditional Students; School Holding Power; Student Evaluation; Student Financial Aid; Tables (Data); Teaching Methods; Teaching Skills; Tuition
IDENTIFIERS	*Europe; European Union; Globalization; *Reform Efforts

ABSTRACT

This study examines higher education reforms in the 15 European Union member states and 3 European Free Trade Association countries between 1980-98, identifying trends, convergences, and divergences between the countries and changes in the management and control of higher education institutions, particularly as they relate to financing and quality control. After an introduction, Chapter 1, "Legislation for Change," examines policies underlying reform and instruments employed to formulate and enforce these policies. Chapter 2, "Management, Finance, and Control," discusses reforms affecting higher education management, financing, and quality control, noting the responsibilities of higher education institutions and regional and national governments. Chapter 3, "Access and Wastage," highlights changes in entry requirements and access routes for nontraditional students. Chapter 4, "Financial Aid to Students," examines major changes in public financial support for students. Chapter 5, "Curriculum and Teaching," examines changes in the structure of higher education, course planning, teaching methods, student assessment, and faculty training. Chapter 6, "Internationalisation," discusses the opening of higher education to international influences (e.g., course provision and cooperation and exchange of students and staff). Chapter 7, "Conclusions and Future Perspectives," discusses possible future reforms. A small companion document titled "Profile of...Two Decades of Reform in Higher Education in Europe: 1980 Onwards" offers brief discussions of the motivation for the study, methodology, entrepreneurial culture in higher

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made
from the original document.

education, quality evaluation, student diversity, structural renewal, and higher education in the Europe of tomorrow. (Contains 31 references.) (SM)

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made
from the original document.

ED 444 416

EURYDICE

TWO DECADES OF REFORM IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN EUROPE: 1980 ONWARDS

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
D. Gisele
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
1

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality
● Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy

EDUCATION
AND CULTURE
EUROPEAN
COMMISSION

• Eurydice Studies •

EURYDICE

Eurydice Studies

TWO DECADES OF REFORM IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN EUROPE: 1980 ONWARDS

Eurydice
The Information Network
on Education in Europe

This document is published by the EURYDICE European Unit with the financial support of the European Commission (Education and Culture Directorate-General).

Original language: English
Available in English and French (with the title: *Vingt années de réformes dans l'enseignement supérieur en Europe: de 1980 à nos jours*).

D/2000/4008/1
ISBN 2-87116-292-1

This document is also available on the Internet (http://www.eurydice.org).

The contents of this publication may be reproduced in part, except for commercial purposes, provided that the extract is preceded by a complete reference to 'EURYDICE, the Information Network on Education in Europe', followed by the date of publication of the document.

Requests for permission to reproduce the entire document must be made to the European Unit.

EURYDICE
European Unit
Rue d'Arlon 15
B-1050 Brussels

Tel. (32-2) 238.30.11
Fax (32-2) 230.65.62
URL: http://www.eurydice.org
E-mail: info@eurydice.org

4

PREFACE

Higher education has long been recognised as an instrument of cultural, social and economic advancement for societies and for their individual members. During the latter half of the 20th century, a rising proportion of the European population from mixed socio-economic backgrounds asserted their right to higher education to acquire new skills or to improve them throughout adult life. This met with the full support of the educational authorities which viewed such a development as a catalyst for cultural and economic prosperity. It is important to remember that, across the European Union, the number of students has more than doubled in the last twenty years. They now number more than twelve million. This surge in demand forced European countries to review their educational offer in relation to availability, relevance, quality, cost and efficiency. In order to provide a better understanding of the developments in this area during the past 20 years, Eurydice, the Information Network on Education in Europe, was asked to prepare the current study covering the EU and EFTA/EEA countries.

In an attempt to identify the major factors that have shaped reforms during the period under consideration, the answer seems to lie as much in the unprecedented influence economic and social life has gained over public higher education as in the increased emphasis on its quality. These were a result of governments relaxing their tight control over higher education by making institutions more autonomous. While public authorities for the most part set only general parameters for operation, they used the quality of the product as a yardstick for funding and thus ensured institutional accountability. The economic world, in its public and private forms, was asked to step in and act both as adviser in questions of administration, quality assurance and curricular design, as well as sponsor.

The study reveals that the reforms undertaken in Europe over the last twenty years, while retaining certain national particularities, increasingly displayed common dimensions and trends. The strengthening of European cooperation in the area of higher education appears to be a widely shared desire. This is undoubtedly the product of Community action in this field over many years, in particular the Erasmus programme. An important milestone was reached last year with the adoption of the Declaration of Bologna by twenty-nine countries on the development of a European Higher Education Area. It is hoped that such an area will promote better European-wide recognition and transferability of study attainments, ever greater mobility of the academic community, strengthened cooperation in quality assurance and a review of higher education structures. The impetus created by this Declaration should lead the participating countries into the 3rd Millennium and guide their higher education policies in the direction of ever closer cooperation.

Viviane Reding
Commissioner Education and Culture
February 2000

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface 3
Table of contents 5
Glossary 9

Part I: Comparative analysis of higher education reforms between 1980 and 1998 .... **11**

Introduction 13
1. Scope of the study 13
2. Definitions 16
3. Structure of the study 17

Chapter 1: Legislation for Change **19**
1.1. The focus of legislation and published policy 20
1.2. The relationship between legislation, policy and change 27
1.3. Systems with few reforms 31
1.4. Overview of reforms 33
Annex - Country tables 35

Chapter 2: Management, Finance and Control **87**
2.1. The responsibilities of the main actors 88
    2.1.1. The State 88
    2.1.2. The higher education institutions 88
2.2. Reforms in the financing of institutions 93
    2.2.1. The awarding of block grants 95
    2.2.2. Formula-based funding 95
    2.2.3. Contract-based funding 97
    2.2.4. Tuition/registration fees 98
2.3. Quality assessment and control 100
2.4. Overview of reforms 104

Chapter 3: Access and Wastage **107**
3.1. Reforms in higher education admission procedures 107
    3.1.1. Changes in the selectivity at entry to higher education 107
    3.1.1.1. Changes in the locus of responsibility for the selection process 111
    3.1.1.2. Changes in selection criteria applied 112
3.2. Widening access 114
    3.2.1. Access for mature-age students without traditional qualifications 114
        3.2.1.1. Accreditation of prior experience 116
        3.2.1.2. Quota of places 117
        3.2.1.3. Special entry exam 117
        3.2.1.4. Access courses 118
        3.2.1.5. Flexible programmes/open university/distance learning 118
    3.2.2. Access for applicants with vocational school-leaving qualifications 119
3.3. Measures to reduce wastage 120
    3.3.1. Information and guidance 122
    3.3.2. Introduction of shorter or modular courses 123
    3.3.3. Financial incentives for institutions 124
    3.3.4. Financial incentives for students 124
3.4. Overview of reforms 125

Chapter 4: Financial Aid to Students **127**
4.1. Cash benefits in the form of grants and/or loans 127
4.2. Subsidised services 130

Chapter 5: Curriculum and Teaching **133**
5.1. The curriculum 133
  5.1.1. Factors underlying change 134
    5.1.1.1. Devolution of responsibility for course planning 135
    5.1.1.2. Closer links with the labour market 137
  5.1.2. Policy developments related to reforms of course structure and content 140
    5.1.2.1. Establishment of a non-university, vocational higher education sector 141
    5.1.2.2. Merging of vocationally-oriented institutions and upgrading of courses 142
    5.1.2.3. Introduction of shorter initial university degree courses 144
    5.1.2.4. Introduction or reinforcement of flexible modular credit-based courses 146
5.2. Teaching and assessment 148
  5.2.1. Teaching 149
    5.2.1.1. Increased emphasis on the pedagogical competence of teaching staff 149
    5.2.1.2. Larger teaching groups 151
    5.2.1.3. New teaching methods 152
    5.2.1.4. Increased use of information and communications technology 152
    5.2.1.5. Work experience as course element 153
  5.2.2. Assessment 154
    5.2.2.1. Introduction of new assessment methods 154
    5.2.2.2. Increased frequency of assessment 154
5.3. Overview of reforms 155

Chapter 6: Internationalisation **157**
6.1. European Union and other multilateral programmes 158
6.2. Government/national strategies 160
  6.2.1. Legislation and policy documents 161
  6.2.2. Establishment of national agencies in support of internalisation 163
  6.2.3. Special funding for institutions 163
  6.2.4. Financial aid or other support for students 164
  6.2.5. Other measures to promote student exchanges 165
6.3. Institutional initiatives 165
  6.3.1. International offices or administrators 166
  6.3.2. Language courses and courses delivered in foreign languages 167
  6.3.3. Integration and support for foreign students 167
  6.3.4. Internationalisation of curricula 167
6.4. Overview of reforms 168

Chapter 7: Conclusions and Future Perspectives **171**
7.1. Catalysts for reform in higher education 171
  7.1.1. Increase in demand 171
  7.1.2. Restrictions on public spending 172
  7.1.3. Globalisation of economies 172
  7.1.4. Technological progress 173
  7.1.5. Decentralisation 173
7.2. Areas of reform in higher education 173
  7.2.1. Convergence 174

7.2.1.1. Structure of higher education 176
7.2.1.2. Management, finance and control 177
7.2.1.3. Access and wastage 178
7.2.1.4. Financial aid to students 178
7.2.1.5. Curriculum and teaching 178
7.2.1.6. Internationalisation 179
7.2.2. Divergence 180
7.2.2.1. Structure of higher education 180
7.2.2.2. Management, finance and control 180
7.2.2.3. Access and wastage 181
7.2.2.4. Financial aid to students 181
7.2.2.5. Curriculum and teaching 181
7.3. Future perspectives 182

Bibliography 185

Part II: National descriptions of higher education reforms between 1980 and 1998 187

Available on CD-ROM (see end of the book)

Introduction 189

Acknowledgements 191

GLOSSARY

ABBREVIATIONS

Country codes

EU	European Union
B	Belgium
B fr	Belgium - French Community
B de	Belgium - German-speaking Community
B nl	Belgium - Flemish Community
DK	Denmark
D	Germany
EL	Greece
E	Spain
F	France
IRL	Ireland
I	Italy
L	Luxembourg
NL	Netherlands
A	Austria
P	Portugal
FIN	Finland
S	Sweden
UK	United Kingdom
E/W	England and Wales
NI	Northern Ireland
SC	Scotland
EFTA/EEA	European Free Trade Association/European Economic Area
IS	Iceland
LI	Liechtenstein
NO	Norway

Other abbreviations

(:)	Not available
(-)	Not applicable
AEI	*Anotato Ekpaideftiko Idryma* (Greece)
APL	Accreditation of prior learning (United Kingdom)
BaföG	*Bundesausbildungsförderungsgesetz* (Germany)
CAO	Central Applications Office (Ireland)
CAT	Credit Accumulation Transfer Schemes (United Kingdom)
CESE	*Cursos de estudos superiores especializados* (Portugal)
CNAA	Council for National Academic Awards (United Kingdom)
CNE	*Comité National d'Évaluation* (France)
CNED	*Centre national d'enseignement à distance* (France)
COU	*Curso de Orientación Universitaria* (Spain)
CROHO	*Centraal register opleidingen hoger onderwijs* (the Netherlands)
CUNLUX	*Centre universitaire de Luxembourg* (Luxembourg)
CVCP	Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals (United Kingdom)
DAAD	*Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst* (Germany)
DAEU	*Diplôme d'accès aux études universitaires* (France)
DEA	*Diplôme d'études approfondies* (France)
DESE	*Diploma de estudos superiores especializados* (Portugal)
DESS	*Diplôme d'études supérieures spécialisées* (France, French Community of Belgium)
DEUG	*Diplôme d'études universitaires générales* (France)
ECTS	European Credit Transfer System
EPSCP	*Établissements publics à caractère scientifique, culturel et professionnel* (France)
ESEU	*Examen spécial d'entrée universitaire* (France)
EUROSTAT	Statistical Office of the European Communities
FHL	*Fachhochschule Liechtenstein* (Liechtenstein)

GDP	Gross domestic product
GNVQ	General National Vocational Qualifications (United Kingdom)
HBO	*Hoger beroepsonderwijs* (Netherlands)
HEQC	Higher Education Quality Council (United Kingdom)
HHX	*Højere handelseksamen* (Denmark)
HOOP	*Hoger onderwijs onderzoek plan* (the Netherlands)
HRG	*Hochschulrahmengesetz* (Germany)
HSP	*Hochschulsonderprogramm* (Germany)
HTX	*Højere teknisk eksamen* (Denmark)
IAP	*Internationale Akademie für Philosophie* (Liechtenstein)
ICT	Information and communications technology
ILT	Institute for Learning and Teaching in Higher Education (United Kingdom)
ISCED	International Standard Classification for Education
ISERP	*Institut supérieur d'études et de recherches pédagogiques* (Luxembourg)
IST	*Institut supérieur de technologie* (Luxembourg)
IUFM	*Institut universitaire de formation des maîtres* (France)
IUT	*Instituts universitaires de technologie* (France)
IUP	*Instituts universitaires professionnalisés* (France)
LOGSE	*Ley Orgánica de Ordenación General del Sistema Educativo* (Spain)
LRU	*Ley Orgánica de Reforma Universitaria* (Spain)
NARIC	Network of National Academic Recognition Information Centres
NCEA	National Council for Educational Awards (Ireland)
NORDPLUS	Nordic Programme for the Mobility of University Students and Teachers
NUFFIC	*Nederlandse organisatie voor internationale samenwerking in het hoger onderwijs* (the Netherlands)
PBL	Problem-Based Learning
PCAS	Polytechnics Central Admissions Service (United Kingdom)
ÖAD	*Österreichischer Akademischer Austauschdienst* (Austria)
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OU	Open University (United Kingdom)
PRODEP	*Programas de desenvolvimento educativo para Portugal* (Portugal)
SCQF	Scottish Credit and Qualification Framework (United Kingdom - Scotland)
SCOTCAT	Scottish Credit Accumulation Transfer Scheme (United Kingdom - Scotland)
SEDA	Staff and Educational Development Association (United Kingdom)
SOFF	*Sentralorganet for fjernundervisning på universitets- og høgskoleniva* (Norway)
TEI	*Technologiko Ekpaideftiko Idryma* (Greece)
UCAS	Universities and Colleges Admissions Service (United Kingdom)
UCCA	Universities Central Council of Admissions (United Kingdom)
UER	*Unité d'enseignement et de recherche* (France)
UHI	University of the Highlands and Islands (United Kingdom)
UOE	Unesco/OECD/Eurostat
UNED	*Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia* (Spain)
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Social and Cultural Organization
VSNU	*Vereniging van Universiteiten* (the Netherlands)
WHBO	*Wet op het hoger beroepsonderwijs* (the Netherlands)
WHO	*Wet op het hoger onderwijs* (the Netherlands)
WHW	*Wet op het hoger onderwijs en wetenschappelijk onderwijs* (the Netherlands)
WWO	*Wet op het wetenschappelijk onderwijs* (the Netherlands)

PART I

Comparative analysis of higher education reforms between 1980 and 1998

INTRODUCTION

Since the expansion of higher education in European countries began during the 1960s, higher education policy has increasingly been the focus of interest and the subject of international comparison as exemplified by publications such as those of Neave and Van Vught (1991), Gellert (1993), or Goedegebuure et al. (1994). Countries and institutions are more and more likely to examine the experiences of their peers abroad before embarking on reforms or changes to their own systems. Although education policy is primarily the responsibility of individual Member States according to the principle of subsidiarity, Article 126 of the Maastricht Treaty recognised for the first time the responsibility of the European Community to promote cooperation in education between European countries. In 1991, a *Memorandum on Higher Education in the European Community* was published by the European Commission as a contribution to the ongoing debate in Member States on the policies necessary to develop their higher education systems to meet the changing needs of the 21st century. The Memorandum identified five critical areas for the future development of higher education: participation in and access to higher education, partnership with economic life, continuing education, open and distance learning, and the European dimension in higher education. The importance of student mobility, the international role of higher education, the need for strategic management at institutional level as well as the issues of quality and finance were addressed in this Memorandum. The document was widely distributed and discussed throughout the European Community during 1992 and the responses contributed to the development of European Commission proposals for European initiatives in the higher education field.

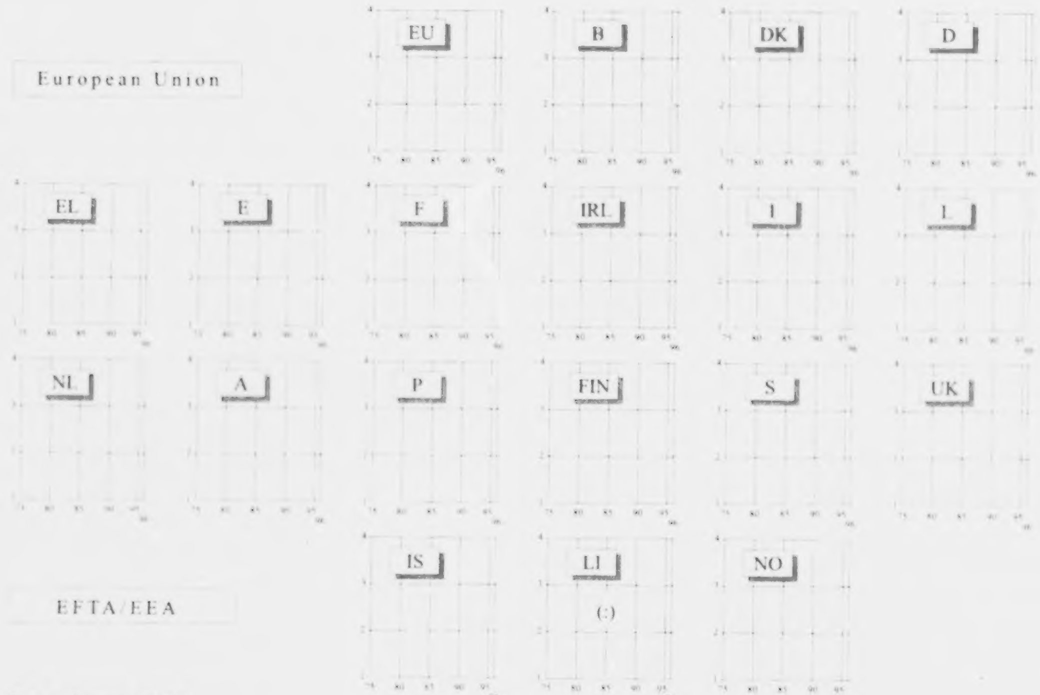
Earlier Community action programmes in education, beginning with the first action programme adopted in 1976, had made cooperation in higher education a priority. Closer international links between higher education institutions in Europe have been developed as a result of the various Community programmes launched in 1987 to promote student mobility and partnerships between institutions, such as Erasmus, Lingua (now part of the Socrates programme) and through EU-funded research programmes. Furthermore, reforms in some European countries have been linked to or motivated by specific European Union initiatives such as the system for the mutual recognition of professional qualifications, the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) or the European pilot project for evaluating quality in higher education.

The aim of this study is to examine reforms in the higher education sector in the fifteen European Union Member States and the three EFTA/EEA countries between 1980 and 1998 and to identify the main trends together with the convergences and divergences between the different countries. This study of the European Union and EFTA/EEA countries therefore represents a unique opportunity to investigate the context for, and the direction of, reforms in higher education in Europe during the 1980s and 1990s. It examines and compares the nature and timing of reforms in the different countries during a period of considerable economic, political and social change and increasing internationalisation.

1. SCOPE OF THE STUDY

All European countries have seen a massive increase in the size of the higher education sector since World War II. This has been reflected both in the increase in the number and diversity of higher education institutions and the increase in the number of applicants for places in higher education. In most countries, expansion was greatest during the 1960s, while in others (Spain, Ireland, Austria, Portugal and Iceland) most expansion took place during the 1980s. In Spain, Ireland and Portugal, accession to the European Community and the availability of European funding played an important part in the growth of higher education. Figure 0.1 (European Commission, Eurydice, Eurostat, 2000, p. 104) shows the trends in the number of students in higher education from 1975/76 to 1996/97.

Figure 0.1: Trends in the number of students in tertiary education (ISCED 5, 6, 7), from 1975/76 to 1996/97



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Germany: Figures prior to 1990 refer to the old *Länder*.

Sweden and **Norway**: Reference year is 1985/86.

United Kingdom: Data for years prior to 1982 do not include nursing and paramedic students.

Iceland: Only full-time students are included.

Explanatory note

The growth index is obtained by dividing the number of students of the different years (1980, 1985, 1990, 1995 and 1996) by the number in the reference year (in most cases, 1975).

The increased demand for places in higher education during the 1960s and 1970s was partly the result of an increase in the size of the age group leaving upper secondary school. However, it was also the consequence of raised social expectations after the war as a greater proportion of the age group achieved the qualifications needed for entry to university. Since 1980, changes in the European labour market, particularly the move away from heavy industry towards more service-based employment, have reinforced the demand for higher-level training to improve employment prospects in most European countries. Despite the decrease in the number of school-leavers seen in most countries since 1985, the demand for higher education has continued to increase in most countries as young people and adults choose to obtain further qualifications before entering a very competitive job market. Only in the Belgian French Community, Germany, France and the Netherlands has the number of higher education students begun to level out during the mid-1990s. Reforms relating to access to higher education have therefore been a focus of this study.

The labour market changes appear also to have become increasingly important in the planning of higher education programmes at both national and local level, leading to the creation of more vocationally-oriented higher education courses for both young people and adults and stimulating closer links between business and the higher education institutions. In most countries this was reflected in the restructuring of higher education during the 1980s by upgrading specialist training colleges (e.g. teacher and social work training, artistic and musical education) to higher education level and by expanding the non-university sector to provide more technically-based higher education.

Another major influence on the higher education systems of the European countries during the period covered by the study has been the economic recession and the resulting restrictions on public spending which most countries experienced during the 1980s as a result of the 1970s oil crisis. After a brief recovery during the early 1990s, many countries imposed further reductions in public spending as a result of decreases in GDP during the mid-1990s and in order to meet the Maastricht criteria for Monetary Union. Since European higher education systems are substantially publicly financed, most have experienced real decreases in funding which have been exacerbated by the simultaneous increase in the demand for student places. In many countries this has stimulated changes in the systems for allocating public funds, with a move towards the awarding of contracts based on competitive bidding by institutions. In some countries, institutions have also been encouraged to look for funds from alternative sources such as regional governments or industry, or to look abroad for students and research funds. In planning terms, this increased market exposure has been seen as a way of improving the competitiveness and therefore the quality of higher education provision, as well as a way of reducing public costs. In order to perform well in a more market-oriented environment, the management of higher education institutions has had to become more efficient and professional, and capable of planning and delivering a marketable service. The development of institutional management has been reinforced by reforms in many countries giving institutions increased autonomy, particularly over their budgets and the planning of courses.

This study therefore looks at the changes in the management and control of higher education institutions, particularly in relation to financing and quality control. It also examines the ways countries have tried to increase the cost-effectiveness of higher education by reducing student dropout and shortening the time taken by students to acquire a higher education qualification. This is reflected in adjustments to the student financial aid systems and by changes in the structure and length of higher education courses, both of which form a focus of this study.

At the same time, the enlargement of the European Union and the increasing internationalisation of the economies have encouraged countries to compare the quality and competitiveness of their higher education systems. In addition, as mentioned above, European action programmes have influenced the developments of links between higher education institutions across Europe. This study therefore also looks at reforms aimed at increasing the internationalisation of higher education in Europe.

However, although the European countries in this study shared many similar demographic, economic and social trends, the different historical, political and cultural contexts in which these operated meant that the response in terms of reforms to the higher education system differed from country to country. More country-specific factors such as the return to democratic rule in Spain, Portugal and Greece, the break-up of the Soviet Union, the devolution of responsibility to the Communities in Belgium and the decentralisation of power over education in Spain influenced the direction and timing of reforms in higher education. The differences as well as the similarities among European countries are therefore a focus of this study.

2. DEFINITIONS

The national descriptions[1] used as the basis for this study were written, always in close consultation with the national Eurydice units, either by independent experts or by experts within the Ministry responsible for higher education. The view of the reform process which these exemplify is, therefore, primarily that of the national or regional government which oversees the higher education sector. In order to ensure that a similar range of issues was addressed, all country descriptions were based on the same framework. Furthermore, the definitions of the key concepts were agreed before the study began.

Although the great majority of studies of higher education focus on the university sector, this study attempted, where possible, to encompass both the university and the non-university sectors since the latter has undergone considerable expansion and change during the period under review. In order to have a consistent basis for comparison in all European countries, the importance of clearly distinguishing between higher education and further education or other lower-level post-secondary, non-tertiary, education was emphasised.

Higher education was defined for this study as:

> *All post-secondary education for which at least an upper secondary school-leaving certificate or equivalent is required and which leads to a higher-level qualification. It comprises courses classified at new ISCED 97[2] levels 5 and 6. Where appropriate, reforms relating both to universities and to other types of non-university higher education institutions have been included.*

The aim of this study was to focus primarily on the changes in higher education which resulted from identifiable national or regional policy, depending on the locus of responsibility for higher education, and to link reform to relevant legislation or published policy documents. It was, however, recognised that in some areas of higher education such as curriculum and teaching, which are primarily the responsibility of the institutions, change may be the result of institutional initiatives. In this study, such changes would only be considered to constitute a reform if they gave rise to a policy intended to ensure that such change is also implemented in other higher education institutions or at other levels of the system.

A reform was defined as:

> *Any substantive, intentional change to the higher education system which has emanated from specific government or regional policy. It may affect a specific area only, such as finance, or may cover a much wider area such as the entire structure of higher education. The responsibility for the implementation of reforms may lie at different levels, including that of the individual institution.*

---

[1] The national descriptions are contained in the CD-ROM attached to this study.

[2] International Standard Classification for Education.

It should be emphasised that the relationship between policy, legislation and reform varies between European countries and this will be discussed in Chapter 1: Legislation for Change.

The study focuses on reforms between 1980 and 1998. This time span was chosen because it covers a period of considerable change in European higher education and allows for meaningful comparison between different countries. However, there were significant earlier reforms, the effect of which was only felt during the period covered by the study and these changes were taken into account in the analysis.

3. STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

This study has a two-part structure. The first part is a comparative analysis of the reforms in higher education based on the national descriptions provided by the fifteen EU Member States and the three EFTA/EEA countries. The second part consists of the national descriptions themselves, one for each country, with separate reports for Scotland and the rest of the UK and for the French and Flemish Communities of Belgium. As the higher education sector in the Belgian German-speaking Community is limited to a very small number of institutions (for teacher training, nursing and allied studies) and since most students pursue their studies in the Belgian French Community or in Germany, separate information for the German-speaking Community is therefore not included. Both the **comparative analysis** and the **national descriptions** employ the same structure based on the main areas of reform:

Introduction
Chapter 1: Legislation for Change
Chapter 2: Management, Finance and Control
Chapter 3: Access and Wastage
Chapter 4: Financial Aid to Students
Chapter 5: Curriculum and Teaching
Chapter 6: Internationalisation
Chapter 7: Conclusions and Future Perspectives

The **Introduction** sets the scene for describing the reforms in higher education. In the national descriptions, it includes a brief history of higher education in the country, describes the main social, political, demographic and economic context for the reforms described in the rest of the document, and explains the role and structure of higher education, including details of the different institutions which offered higher education in 1998.

Chapter 1: Legislation for Change examines the policies underlying reform and takes a closer look at the instruments employed to formulate and enforce these policies. Memoranda, position papers, White Papers etc. are listed as policy formulating instruments, while legislation is considered to be a policy enforcing instrument. The pattern and focus of legislation and policy documents are discussed and the comparative analysis takes a closer look at the similarities and differences in the reform process in the participating countries.

Chapter 2: Management, Finance and Control looks at reforms affecting the management, financing and quality control of higher education institutions. The focus is on the responsibilities of higher education institutions as well as regional or national government in the provision of public higher education. Reforms and recent trends which have influenced the overall independence or autonomy of higher education since 1980, are discussed. Specific issues relating to the allocation of funds or the evaluation of quality of output are addressed under the appropriate sub-sections.

Chapter 3: Access and Wastage focuses on changes in entry requirements to higher education and on reforms of the access routes for mature-age students or those with non-traditional qualifications. Any reforms designed to reduce wastage or dropout of students from their courses are also described.

Chapter 4: Financial Aid to Students examines the main changes in public financial support for students in higher education. Only a broad outline is given as reforms in this area are examined in detail in the recently published study by the European Commission, Eurydice, *Key Topics in Education, Volume 1, Financial Support for Students in Higher Education in Europe*, 1999.

Chapter 5: Curriculum and Teaching examines the changes in the structure of higher education, course planning, teaching methods, the assessment of students and the training of higher education teaching staff. It focuses on the balance between the traditional academic disciplines and the professional and vocationally-oriented courses in the higher education course offer and the changes since 1980. This chapter also looks at reforms relating to higher education qualifications and the move towards more flexible course structures.

Chapter 6: Internationalisation looks at the opening up of higher education to international influences in terms of course provision and through cooperation and exchange of students and staff. Measures taken to promote an international and in particular a European dimension in higher education teaching and research are considered. This includes provision for students in their home countries (e.g. the European dimension in the curriculum, courses in foreign languages, preparatory courses for study abroad, exchange arrangements for students, transferability of student aid) as well as specific provision for foreign students (e.g. courses delivered in foreign languages, language courses for foreigners, recognition of foreign qualifications and study periods abroad, cooperative links with institutions in other countries, funding for foreign students).

The final chapter, **Chapter 7: Conclusions and Future Perspectives** looks ahead to anticipate possible future reforms in the higher education sector and to give an overview of the direction of any changes. The national contributions include the description of important on-going or planned reforms which have not yet reached the statute books. In the comparative analysis this chapter gives an overview of the main areas of reforms and their socio-economic background. While trying to identify common trends in the development of the higher education systems, the chapter also discusses the reasons why certain countries maintained or introduced differing approaches.

CHAPTER 1: LEGISLATION FOR CHANGE

The definition of reform adopted for this study requires changes in higher education to be linked to specific government or regional policy, underlining the importance of understanding the official basis for such changes before examining their effects in practice. The present chapter looks at the relevant legislation and published policies in the different countries and tries to relate them to the reform process.

All participating countries were asked to give details of the main legislative and policy instruments linked to reforms in higher education since 1980 as well as some information on their political and social context. Although the study focuses on the reforms of the 1980s and 1990s, participating countries were also asked to highlight important and influential legislation and policies adopted before 1980. The legislation and policy documents referred to in this chapter have been summarised in the country tables in the annex to this chapter.

Even a superficial examination of the legislative and policy instruments passed in the participating countries illustrates how much variation there is in the relationship between the making of higher education policy and the implementation of reforms. Not only are there variations in the extent to which the different countries use legal or policy instruments to initiate change in higher education, but countries have also changed their combination of instruments employed during the period under review. As the primary aim of this study is to look at reforms in higher education, it has not been possible to examine in detail the legislative processes of the different countries.

One of the most significant reforms observed has been the increased autonomy given to higher education institutions, especially universities, in most European countries and the move away from the **'interventionary state'** towards a more **'facilitatory state'** in the terminology of Neave and Van Vught (1991). This process has often entailed the releasing of higher education institutions from detailed control through legislation by giving them the right to pass their own statutes in the broadening area over which they have autonomy.

This chapter examines the pattern of legal or policy instruments employed by the different countries and their changing relationship within the reform process. They vary in status and scope, ranging from framework acts, influencing a wide area but often only implemented through subsequent more specific legislation (bye-laws, decrees, regulations etc.) to White or Green Papers, Memoranda or position papers which act to stimulate discussion and may either become a precursor to subsequent legislation or lead directly to change. There are several possible relationships between reform, policy and legislation, often changing over time and between countries. Some countries base reform on a detailed and prescriptive legislative process comprising a series of laws, decrees and regulations which are individually approved by Parliament. Others rely on a limited number of framework laws implemented through subsequent legislation and policy documents. In yet other situations, a policy is tested through the implementation of pilot projects proposed in policy documents and change may already have occurred before the relevant legislation has been passed.

Reforms are not always the immediate result of specific legislative changes, particularly where their implementation requires the enactment of further legislation or action on the part of other bodies such as the higher education institutions. Reforms initiated by legislation may be phased in gradually, implemented only after a long delay or not implemented at all if acts are repealed or their provision is changed by subsequent legislation. The latter is particularly likely where there is a change in government. This poses a problem when attempting to pinpoint the date when a particular reform was introduced. Since this chapter focuses on the instruments employed to enable or initiate reform, the date given in the tables is, where possible, the year the relevant legislation was passed, or the policy document published. However, it should be noted that in other chapters, where the primary focus is the reform process itself, the date of actual implementation, or the coming into effect of the legislation may be quoted instead.

The country tables which accompany this chapter include a brief description of all those instruments referred to by the participating countries without making any distinction as to their status or their influence on the reform process. The scope and significance of the different legal and policy bases for reform in each country will be discussed in this chapter.

1.1. THE FOCUS OF LEGISLATION AND PUBLISHED POLICY

Table 1.1 summarises the information on the legislation and policy documents relating to reform in higher education between 1980 and 1998. Information on reforms predating this period is included in the country tables attached to this chapter. The dates indicate the year a legislative act was passed or a policy document published and at the same time serve as a link between Table 1.1 and the aforementioned country tables. Whenever a country passed more than one piece of legislation in a particular year, a small letter after the date is used to identify the various legislative acts. Whenever a country passed separate legislation for the university and the non-university sector, this has been indicated in the table by (u) and (n-u). Where there is no indication, the legislation applied to the whole of higher education.

Table 1.1: Main areas of reform and the year any relevant legislation was passed or policy documents published since 1980

Country	Structure of higher education	Management and control	Financing of institutions	Quality control and evaluation	Course planning	Access and wastage	Financial aid to students	Internationalisation	Teaching and assessment	Other
European Union										
B fr	1994 (u) 1995 (n-u)	1994 (u) 1995 (n-u)	*1986* 1989 1996 (n-u) 1998 (u)	1995 (n-u)	1994 (u) 1995 (n-u)	*1986* 1994 (u) 1995 (n-u)	1983 *1986*			
B nl	*1984* 1990 1992 1994 (n-u)	1989 1991 (u) 1994 (n-u)	*1986* 1989 1991 (u) 1997	1991 (u) 1994 (n-u)	*1984 (n-u)* 1991 (u) 1996	*1986* 1991 (u)	1983 *1986*			
DK	1988 1990a *1992* *1993 (u)* 1993a 1997	1993 (u)	1989 (n-u) 1990 (n-u) *1992* 1992a *1994*	1992a 1993 (u) 1997	1993 (u)	1990a *1992* 1993 (u)	1988a	1988a	*1984* 1993 (u)	
D	1985c 1990	1985c 1998	*1996* 1998	*1996* 1998	1985c	1985a 1998		*1996* 1998	1998	1985b: Staffing
EL	1983a (n-u) 1997	1982 (u) 1992 1995	1982 1997	1997	1997	1983 1997 1997a	1982 1995	1997	1997	
E	1990 (n-u)	1983 (u) 1992	1983 (u) 1992 *1994*	1983 (u) 1995	1983 (u) 1987(u) 1990 (n-u) 1993 (n-u)	1983 (u)	1983 (u) 1983a			1983: Recognition of private university institutions 1983: Teaching staff 1986: Research
F	1984 1989 (n-u)	1984 1985 (n-u) 1994 *1996a*	1984 1985 (n-u) *1989a* 1990 1994	1984 *1996*	1992 (u) *1996*	1984 1992 (u) *1996a*	1984 *1996*	1992		

Table 1.1: Main areas of reform and the year any relevant legislation was passed or policy documents published since 1980 (continued)

Country	Structure of higher education	Management and control	Financing of institutions	Quality control and evaluation	Course planning	Access and wastage	Financial aid to students	Internationalisation	Teaching and assessment	Other
IRL	1989 (n-u) 1992 1992a (n-u) 1997 (u)	1992 (n-u) 1997 (u)	1997 (u) *1992b*	*1992b* 1997 (u)	*1992b*	*1992b* 1995a	1995a			
I	1997b (n-u)	1980 (u) 1989 (u) 1993 (u) 1996a (u) 1997 (u)	1993 (u) 1996a (u) 1997 (u)	1996(u)	1980 (u) 1990a (u) 1997 (u)	1997c (u)	1991 1994 1997a		1998	1980,1998: Teaching and research, staffing 1990: Development planning 1981: Private universities
L	1983 (n-u) 1990 (n-u)	1996 (u)	1996 (u)	1996 (u)			1992			
NL	*1982 (u)* *1983* 1984a 1985b (n-u) 1986a (n-u) 1992	*1983* 1985 (u) *1985a (u)* 1985b (n-u) 1986a (n-u) 1986b (u) *1987* 1992 1997 (u)	*1982 (u)* 1985b (n-u) *1986 (u)* 1986a (n-u) 1986b (u) 1992	1985 *1985a (u)* 1985b 1992 1996	1981 (u) 1985 1985b 1992	1984 (n-u) 1984a 1996	1986c 1992	*1988* *1991* 1997	1985b 1992	1985,1987: Development planning
A	1993a (n-u) 1994	1993 (u) 1997 (u) 1998 (u)	1993 (u) 1998 (u)	1993 (u) 1997 (u) 1998 (u)	1993a (n-u) 1997 (u)	1997 (u)	1992	1997 (u)	1997 (u)	
P	1979a/80a (n-u) 1986 1997a	1986 1988 (u) 1990 (n-u) 1997b (u)	1992 1997	1986 1994a 1998a	1986 1988 (u) 1990 (n-u) 1997a	1986 1997 1998	1993 1997			1989,1994: Organisation of private higher education
FIN	1991a (n-u) 1995 (n-u)	1986 (u) 1991 1997 (u)	1986 (u) 1996a (u)	1986 (u) 1991 *1995a* 1996 (u)	*1993* *1995a*	1991b *1995a*	1992 1994	1991 *1993* *1995a*		*1993*,1995: Research

Table 1.1: Main areas of reform and the year any relevant legislation was passed or policy documents published since 1980 (continued)

Country	Structure of higher education	Management and control	Financing of institutions	Quality control and evaluation	Course planning	Access and wastage	Financial aid to students	Internatio-nalisation	Teaching and assessment	Other
S	1996a	1987 *1992* 1992a 1992b 1996a 1997	1992b	1992a 1995	1992b	1992b 1995 1996	1988	1985 1992b		1985a, 1992b & 1997: Staffing 1996a: Tasks of university and university colleges
UK	*1991* 1992	1988 1989 (NI) 1992 *1997*	*1981* *1987* 1988 *1991* 1992 *1997* 1998	*1991* 1992 *1997*	*1997*	*1987*	1990 *1997* 1998		*1997*	*1997*: Research, relations between higher education institutions and the business community
EFTA/EEA										
IS	1988 1995 (n-u) 1997 (n-u)	1997a	1997a	1997a	1988 (u)	1988 1997a	1992			
LI	1992 1993 1997	1997								
NO	*1987 (n-u)* 1989 (n-u) 1990 (n-u) 1991 (n-u) *1991a* *1992* 1993 (n-u) 1995 1997 (n-u)	1989a (u) *1992* 1995 1996a	*1992* 1996a	*1992*	1981 *1987 (n-u)* 1989 (n-u) 1989a (u) 1990 (n-u) 1991 (n-u) *1992* 1995	*1992* 1995	1985 *1992* 1996	*1992* 1995	*1987 (n-u)* 1989 (n-u) 1989a (u) *1992* 1995	1986: Recognition of private higher education

Source: Eurydice.

(u) = university (n-u) = non-university

Italicised dates indicate policy documents; non-italicised dates indicate legislation.

Small letters follow dates (e.g. 1987a) when more than one piece of legislation was passed or more than one document published during the course of a specific year. More detailed information on individual legislation/policy documents is available in the Annex to Chapter 1.

The headings for Table 1.1 were chosen from among the main foci of the legislative and policy instruments cited in the national descriptions. They primarily cover the key areas identified in the study framework plus one additional area where important reforms were observed: the overall structure of the higher education system, including the upgrading of post-secondary and non-university institutions and courses. Some legislative or policy instruments influenced other areas which are listed in the column 'other', including changes in the staffing structure in higher education, research, the recognition of privately-run higher education courses or institutions, development planning and the relationship between higher education and society at large. The table shows that the major focus of legislation and policy was on management and control of higher education as well as the financing of institutions. Other important areas were the structure of the higher education system, quality control and evaluation of institutions and programmes, course planning as well as access and wastage. The areas which were least likely to be the subject of legal or policy instruments were teaching and assessment, and internationalisation.

Legislation affecting the **structure of the higher education system** is closely linked with curricular reform and both areas are covered in detail in Chapter 5: Curriculum and Teaching. Reform often concerned the creation of technological higher education institutions such as the *Technologika Ekpaideftika Idrymata* (*TEIs*) in Greece, the Regional Technology Colleges in Ireland, the *Institut supérieur de technologie de Luxembourg* (*IST*), the *Fachhochschulen* in Austria, the polytechnic institutions in Portugal, and the *Fachhochschule Liechtenstein* (*FHL*). In France, in 1989, the law established the university institutes of teacher training (*instituts universitaires de formation des maîtres - IUFM*) to replace the hitherto non-university structures for teacher training. Other legislation governed the restructuring of the whole of the higher education system to bring the university and non-university sectors into an equivalent legislative framework (though not necessarily to combine the two sectors) and encourage parity of esteem, as in the Flemish Community of Belgium, the Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden, United Kingdom, Liechtenstein and Norway.

In some countries like Spain, Iceland and Norway as well as in the Belgian French and Flemish Communities, legislation led to the restructuring and rationalisation of the non-university sector by the merging of institutions. Often such legislation was part of a process of upgrading post-secondary and non-university higher education institutions or courses to university level. Upgrading of courses and institutions offering primary-level teacher training, training for the paramedical professions, training for educational child care staff and art and music courses, was carried out during the period being studied in the Flemish Community of Belgium, France, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Sweden, Finland, Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway, while the French Community of Belgium upgraded only part of these courses. Italy also upgraded the institutions for sport and physical education from post-secondary to university level. In Norway in particular, the upgrading process entailed the enactment of a long series of royal decrees to cover different types of institutions. Such upgrading often also led to reforms in admission regulations, increases in the autonomy of the institutions, increases in course length and changes in the qualifications awarded.

Denmark, Greece and the Netherlands legislated to create an Open University while other countries established new universities. These were the postgraduate University Centre for Further Education in Krems, Austria, eleven new universities in France (four on the outskirts of Paris, five in the north and west, and one in the Pacific area and the Technical University in Troyes), and the University of Akureyri, Iceland. In 1993, Denmark introduced the so-called 3+2+3-structure dividing university programmes into three cycles: a 3-year bachelor programme, a 2-year *candidatus*-programme and a 3-year doctoral programme. Finally, Germany passed legislation in 1990 covering the restructuring of higher education in the new *Länder* after reunification.

In Liechtenstein, with its small degree of higher education provision, the main focus of reforms during the period of the study was the development and restructuring of the institution *Fachhochschule*.

Reforms in the **management and control** of higher education were the subject of the largest number of legislative acts and policy documents. The main focus was on reforms in institutional management linked to the increase in autonomy granted to higher education institutions and to the reinforcement of links with the economic environment during the period under consideration. The same instruments often also influenced the regime for **financing** institutions and the procedures for **assessment and quality control** of the educational provision. In a few countries, reforms in this area resulted from legislation covering the devolution of responsibility from the State to certain regions for the overseeing and financing of part or all of the higher education system (Belgium 1989, Spain 1992, and France 1985 (vocational training only)). In some countries, separate legislation had to be enacted to bring about similar changes in the university and non-university sectors.

Course planning, together with the regulation of the criteria for awarding degrees or other qualifications, formed a specific focus for reform acts or instruments in most countries except Ireland, Luxembourg, Iceland and Liechtenstein. However this does not necessarily mean that these countries saw no changes to higher education study programmes during the period considered since, in a number of countries, reforms in course or programme structure or content became the responsibility of the higher education institutions themselves and would therefore no longer be the subject of national policy.

The legislation or policy-based reforms affecting higher education courses or programmes most commonly involved the re-structuring of university courses. Depending on the country, this could imply the offering of shorter undergraduate courses, the specification of the levels at which different types of degrees could be awarded, increasing the flexibility of programmes and/or establishing closer links between the course offer and the demands of the labour market by, for example, increasing the number of technological courses. A number of countries changed their mechanisms for course planning by either setting up or facilitating the creation of national or (more frequently) institution-based advisory councils to develop and evaluate course provision, as in Spain (1983), Italy (1980) and Portugal (1988, 1990). The process of upgrading non-university vocational institutions and courses often also entailed the restructuring of curricula and, frequently, increasing the length of courses, as in Belgium (1977), the French Community of Belgium (1990), the Flemish Community of Belgium (1994, 1996), Spain (1990, 1993), France (1989), the Netherlands (1992), Portugal (1997a) and Finland (1991a). Finally, new regulations were passed for the recognition of vocational courses provided by private or non-public organisations in Austria (1993a), Portugal (1989, 1994) and Norway (1986).

All the countries except Luxembourg and Liechtenstein, most of whose students study abroad, had legislated to reform **access procedures** for higher education or to reduce **wastage** by influencing the rate at which students drop out of higher education courses. In some countries changes in the systems of financial aid for students, including adjustments to the fees charged, also had an impact on access and wastage.

It is important to emphasise that the nature of changes in the area of access and wastage depended partly on whether or not a country already operated a selective entry system. An examination of reforms introduced in this area suggests that countries with a selective entry system have tended to focus reforms on changes in the selection system while those with more open access have focused more on reducing dropout by improving student advice and guidance. It must also be remembered that legislation-led changes are not the only source of reforms in access to higher education, since in a number of countries, the institutions set their own criteria for admission.

Another important focus of reform was the improvement of access to higher education for mature-age students and those with non-traditional qualifications. Finland (1995a) and the United Kingdom (1987) made commitments to lifelong learning and to widening access to higher education. In Denmark, from 1990 onwards, it was possible for suitably qualified adults to follow part-time Open University courses or other part-time education programmes leading to professional qualifications. In France, since 1984, vocational skills can be accredited for entry to higher education and in Finland (1991b) access to higher education was extended to those with post-secondary vocational qualifications. The French Community of Belgium, in its decrees from 1994 and 1995, granted access to the second cycle of higher education to those with sufficient professional experience or otherwise acquired knowledge. In 1996, the collaboration and interaction with society at large (the local community, the business community and the public sector) was defined in the Swedish Higher Education Act as a third task of universities and university colleges besides education and research.

Open Universities were created in some countries during the period considered to provide higher education to adults and to those geographically remote from a higher education institution as in Denmark (1990), Greece (1997) and the Netherlands (1984). For the Flemish Community of Belgium the Open University was established in close cooperation with the Netherlands.

A number of countries made legislation-based changes designed to reduce student dropout and to encourage students to complete their courses more quickly. These focused on easing the transition from secondary to higher education by making better advice available to students when choosing their study programmes and by providing support through a tutorial system: France (1992, 1996a); Italy (1997b); Austria (1997); and Sweden (1992b). In the Netherlands (1996), changes in institutional procedures to reduce wastage were included in the quality assessment process.

Another area in which all countries except Germany and Liechtenstein legislated was **financial aid to students**. Most countries seemed concerned with the level of grants and, where applicable, their relationship with loans. Fewest changes were noted with respect to the students' degree of dependence on parents' or spouse's income with all reforms aimed at reducing this dependence.

Despite the apparent importance of **internationalisation** in higher education policy it was not specifically a subject of legislation or published policy in the majority of countries. Only a few countries have made any explicit mention of it during the past 20 years. The range of meaning of the term internationalisation was broad, from the aim of the Greek Education 2000 Act (1997) to adjust higher education to international norms, to the Dutch Internationalisation Incentive Programme of 1988 which aimed to promote an international orientation to the whole of higher education. In Germany, the 1996 *Hochschulsonderprogramm HSP III* (Special Higher Education Programme) refers to the promotion of international cooperation, the Austrian University Studies Act 1997 aims to promote international mobility and successive Government Development Plans for Education and University Research in Finland have made internationalisation one of their target areas. The Swedish Higher Education Acts of 1977 and 1992 stipulate that education should promote international understanding.

Similarly, **teaching and assessment** as well as the qualifications required for higher education teaching staff were the subject of legislation or policy in only a minority of countries. In most countries, the principle of academic freedom extends to teaching methods, which are seen as the responsibility of individual academics. Only a few countries introduced regulations concerning the appointment of teaching staff or made reference to teaching and assessment methods with the main focus on the use of information and communications technology. Denmark adopted the *New Blood Recruitment Programme* introducing new regulations for the appointment of academic staff such as the requirement of a doctoral degree for seekers of tenured posts. Italy made changes to the status of professors in 1980 and decentralised their appointment procedures in 1998. Germany's 1996 Special Higher Education Programme *HSP III* included proposals to improve the infrastructure of higher education through the introduction of multimedia-based teaching and through the promotion of younger academic personnel (support for post-doctoral work, accelerated appointments, targeted support for women), and to increase the financial support for the *Habilitation* (post-doctoral lecturing qualification) in subjects with a high demand for young academics. In Greece, the restructuring of courses at universities (*AEI*s) and technological educational institutions (*TEI*s) under the 1997 Act included the use of new technology and new pedagogical materials. In France, in 1984, the requirements for the recruitment of teaching staff were altered and special training programmes for a new category of junior staff, the *moniteurs*, introduced.

1.2. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEGISLATION, POLICY AND CHANGE

Although different types of legislation and policy documents have been treated as equivalent in Table 1.1, there are in fact large variations in status and scope between the different instruments cited. In some cases, the same piece of legislation or policy influences several different areas of higher education, while others are more specific.

Most countries have a hierarchy of legal instruments. These range from general acts passed by the national or federal government and approved by Parliament, to specific decrees, decree-laws or *arrêtés* which are formulated and passed by the national or regional government without parliamentary intervention, right through to very detailed government regulations or statutes drawn up by the higher education institutions themselves. The references to legislation in higher education used in this chapter and detailed in the attached country tables are those taken from the national descriptions. It remains possible that differences in the reporting of legislation, such as whether or not all subordinate legislation is included, may have contributed to the impression that more pronounced differences exist in the process of introducing reforms.

During the study period, major reforms in higher education have, in most countries, been heralded by the passing of a major legislative act, often described as a framework act or a reform act. This piece of legislation usually covers a wide area and either sets the legal framework for further, more specific, legislation or apportions responsibility for the direct implementation of change. The use of the word 'framework' usually implies the establishment of legal boundaries within which the higher education system, particularly the institutions, may freely operate. Such wide-ranging acts must be approved by the national Parliament and are often preceded by a discussion and consultation phase based on policy documents such as Memoranda, or Green or White Papers.

In Belgium, responsibility for higher education was passed to the Communities in 1989. Since only the national government is empowered to pass acts, the major decrees covering higher education passed at Community level since this time have been included in Table 1.2 below.

Table 1.2: Major pieces of legislation in higher education since 1980

Country	Year legislation was passed	Legislation	Antecedents and implementation
		European Union	
B fr	1994	*Décret du 5 septembre 1994 relatif au régime des études universitaires et des grades académiques* (Decree on university studies and academic degrees)	Implemented in 1995/96. Replaced laws dating from 1949.
	1995	*Décret du 5 août 1995 fixant l'organisation générale de l'enseignement supérieur en Hautes écoles* (Decree on the general organisation of higher education at *Hautes écoles*)	Came into force in 1995/96 replacing the 1970 Law.
	1996	*Décret du 9 septembre 1996 relatif au financement des Hautes écoles organisées ou subventionnées par la Communauté française* (Decree on the financing of the *Hautes écoles* organised or subsidised by the French Community)	First basic law on the financing of the non-university higher education (*Hautes écoles*). Came into force in 1996/97
B nl	1991	*Decreet betreffende de universiteiten in de Vlaamse Gemeenschap van 12 juni 1991* (Parliament of Flanders Act on universities in the Flemish Community)	Followed the 1989 Decree passing responsibility for overseeing and funding higher education to the Communities.
	1994	*Decreet betreffende de hogescholen in de Vlaamse Gemeenschap van 13.07.94* (Parliament of Flanders Act on hogescholen in the Flemish Community)	Implemented in 1995/96

Table 1.2: Major pieces of legislation in higher education since 1980 (continued)

Country	Year legislation was passed	Legislation	Antecedents and implementation
DK	1993	*Bekendtgørelse No 334 af lov om universiteter m.fl.* (Consolidation Act on Universities)	Replaced the *Styrelseslov* (Higher Education Institutions Administration Act) of 1973 and its amendments.
D	1976	*Hochschulrahmengesetz - HRG* (Higher Education Framework Act)	Still valid with amendments from 1985, 1990, 1993, 1994, 1997 and 1998. It is the task of the *Länder* to fill the framework established by this act with specific details and provisions, as it gives them the right and the responsibility to shape their own specific higher education legislation.
EL	1982	*Nomos 1268* (Framework Act on a new structure and the functioning of universities)	
	1997	*Ekpedevsi 2000* (Education 2000 Act)	
E	1983	*Ley Orgánica de Reforma Universitaria- LRU* (Organic Act on University Reform)	The 1978 Constitution had set the framework including equal rights to higher education, autonomy of universities and establishment of education powers of the Autonomous Communities. Slow implementation (still in progress).
F	1984	*Loi sur l'enseignement supérieur du 26 janvier 1984 - Loi Savary* (Higher Education Act - Savary Act)	Replaced the *Loi d'Orientation sur l'enseignement supérieur du 11 novembre 1968* (Faure Act). Opposition from professors and change of government meant that this act was not fully implemented until 1988.
IRL	1997	Universities Act	Preceded by 1992 Green Paper and 1995 White Paper discussing the future form of higher education.
I	1990	*Legge n. 341, 19.11.1990* (Law on the reorganisation of university teaching)	Preceded by Presidential Decree 382 of 1980 on the reform of university teaching and Law 168 from 1989 establishing the Ministry of Universities and Scientific and Technological Research.
	1991	*Legge n. 390, 2.12.1991* (Law on the right to higher education)	
	1997	*Legge n. 127, 15.5.1997* (Law on autonomy in public administration)	Autonomy to set curricula was implemented by decrees in 1999.
L	1996	*Loi du 11 août 1996 portant réforme de l'enseignement supérieur* (Act reforming higher education)	
NL	1992	*Wet op het hoger onderwijs en wetenschappelijk onderzoek - WHW* (Higher Education and Scientific Research Act)	Implemented in the summer of 1993 this law combines for the first time all higher education previously governed by three different laws: the Open University Act (*WOU 1984*), the University Education Act (*WWO 1985*) and the Higher Professional Education Act (*WHBO 1985*).
A	1993	*Bundesgesetz über die Organisation der Universitäten - UOG* (University Organisation Act)	Reformed 1975 Act. Coalition agreement in 1990 laid the ground for university reform and involved extensive consultation with different interest groups. Phased implementation.
	1993	*Bundesgesetz über Fachhochschul-Studiengänge - FHStG* (Federal Law on *Fachhochschule* Programmes)	Implemented in 1994.

Table 1.2: Major pieces of legislation in higher education since 1980 (continued)

Country	Year legislation was passed	Legislation	Antecedents and implementation
A (cont.)	1997	*Bundesgesetz über die Studien an Universitäten - UniStG* (University Studies Act)	Reformed the 1966 Act.
	1998	*Bundesgesetz über die Organisation der Universitäten der Künste - KUOG* (Universities of Art and Music Organisation Act)	Reformed the Acts of 1970 and 1988.
P	1986	*Lei de bases do sistema educativo, n° 46/86 de 14 de Outubro* (Education Framework Act 46/86)	Followed the creation of the polytechnics during the 1970s.
	1997	*Lei que define as bases do financiamento do ensino superior público, n° 113/97, de 16 de Setembro* (Framework Act on Higher Education Finance 113/97)	
	1997a	*Lei que revi as bases do sistema educativo, n° 115/97 de 19 de Setembro* (Education Framework Act 115/97)	Revised the 1986 Education Framework Act.
FIN	1986	*Laki korkeakoululaitoksen kehittämisestä (1052/1986)* (Higher Education Development Act)	Replaced the 1966 Higher Education Development Act. Implementation of budgeting by results phased until 1994. Came into force in 1987.
	1995	*Laki ammattikorkeakouluopinnoista (255/1995)* (Act on permanent polytechnics)	Followed the establishment of experimental polytechnics by the Law of 1991. Came into force in 1995.
	1997	*Yliopistolaki (645/1997)* (Act on Universities)	Came into force in 1998.
S	1992	*Högskolelagen 1992:1434* (Higher Education Act)	Replaced the 1977 Act. Proposed measures discussed in the 1992 Memorandum on the independence of universities and university colleges.
UK	1988	Education Reform Act (E/W)	The 1987 White Paper proposed funding changes for polytechnics and colleges and a revised policy on access to higher education.
	1989	Education Reform (Northern Ireland) Order	
	1992	Further and Higher Education Act Further and Higher Education (Scotland) Act	The 1991 White Paper proposed a number of changes, including the abolition of the binary system between university and non-university institutions.
		EFTA/EEA	
IS	1997	*Lög um háskóla no. 136, 23.12.1998* (Higher Education Framework Law)	Two-year implementation period.
LI	1992	*Gesetz über die Fachhochschulen, Hochschul- und Forschungsinstitute (106/1992)* (Law on *Fachhochschulen*, Higher Education and Research Institutions)	
NO	1989	*Lov om universiteter og vitenskapelige høgskoler* (Universities and University Colleges Act)	Based on proposals in 1988 Green Paper produced by the Royal Commission on Universities and Colleges. The Act came into effect in 1990, replacing the 1970 Act on Examinations and Degrees.
	1995	*Lov om universiteter og høgskoler* (Universities and Colleges Act)	Drafted by 1992 Royal Commission on Legislation in Higher Education. Replaced 1989 Act by covering all higher education institutions.

Source: Eurydice.

Table 1.2 shows that all the participating countries passed major legislative acts during the period studied regarding the structure and function of higher education. Some would legislate separately for the university and non-university sector, while many introduced legislation covering the whole of the higher education sector (Germany 1976, Greece 1997, France 1984, Luxembourg 1996, the Netherlands 1992, Portugal 1986 and 1997a, Sweden 1992, United Kingdom 1992, Iceland 1997, Liechtenstein 1992, and Norway 1995). The latter group of acts was generally part of the process of achieving parity of esteem for the non-university sector of higher education by bringing both universities and non-university institutions under the same legislative framework. In most of the countries (the French Community of Belgium, Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Finland, United Kingdom, Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway), the acts were passed during the 1990s as part of an ongoing reform process.

Whichever area they applied to, Table 1.2 shows that, in particular, such major acts addressed the autonomy of higher education institutions, giving them greater financial, administrative and pedagogical independence while often simultaneously increasing accountability through the introduction of quality assurance and evaluation procedures. In a number of countries, an explicit aim of recently-passed framework legislation was to simplify legislative control of higher education institutions by replacing older, complex and prescriptive laws by a more general and flexible legal framework (Germany 1998, Ireland 1997, Italy 1997, Luxembourg 1996, the Netherlands 1992, Austria 1997, Sweden 1992, Finland 1997, Iceland 1997 and Norway 1989). Many such acts also defined new structures for the governance and administration of higher education, clarifying the different levels of responsibility, and some established a National Council of Higher Education (or its equivalent) to advise the Government and lead on the evaluation of the higher education system (Spain 1983, France 1984, Luxembourg 1996, Austria 1993 and 1998, and United Kingdom 1992). The French Community of Belgium established two advisory councils, one for the universities and one for the *Hautes écoles*. Other changes introduced by such major pieces of legislation were amendments to the structure and content of study programmes: increasing flexibility and diversity, offering shorter degree courses, linking courses more closely to the labour market and devolving responsibility for course planning to the institutions. Italy was the only country which did not address the management and control of the higher education institutions in a major piece of legislation during the period.

However, not all major acts were comprehensive. The French Community of Belgium passed separate laws for university (1971, 1994) and non-university education (1995, 1996), on the structure of higher education (1994,1995), and for financing and control (1971, 1996). Italy (1991) and Portugal (1997) addressed financing of higher education, including financial aid for students, in separate pieces of legislation. Portugal (1997a) and Austria (1997) passed separate framework acts covering course planning and higher education structure. In France, the 1984 Savary Act, while applying to the whole of higher education, focused particularly on changes in the governance of institutions. This caused considerable opposition to the legislation from the academic community due to its perceived erosion of the power of professors. The act was therefore not fully implemented until 1988. It also made a major contribution to the autonomy of the institutions through introducing the possibility of their being funded by the State through negotiated contractual agreements for providing particular services. The role of negotiated funding expanded when previously separate contracts for teaching and research were merged into one single institutional contract and the negotiation process has, according to Chevaillier (1998), laid the foundations for a changed relationship between the institutions and the Ministry which would replace central planning by financial steering.

Comparison of the information presented in Table 1.2 for the individual countries suggests that there are differences in the relationship between policy, legislation and the implementation of change. The table attempts to show whether the major items of legislation are related to previous legislation or policy documents and to indicate, where possible, the process and time-scale for implementation.

In the majority of countries such as the French Community of Belgium, Denmark, France, Ireland, the Netherlands, Austria, Finland, Sweden, United Kingdom and Norway, higher education reform, particularly during the 1990s, was primarily the result of a relatively small number of broad major acts which were often implemented gradually according to a planned programme. Most of these countries adopted a bottom-up approach to change. The proposals for reform were developed in consultation with those who would be affected by their implementation, on the basis of published policy documents, consultative fora or pilot projects. These included the Multi-Annual Agreement in Denmark which created the basis for the gradual liberalisation of student intake, for the introduction of a new structure for study programmes and for the financing of institutions according to the 'taximeter' system. In addition to these there were the following: the French *États généraux de l'université* discussions in 1996; the Irish Green Paper (1992) and White Paper (1995) discussing the future form of higher education; the Dutch Memorandum *Higher Education, Autonomy and Quality* (1985); the Swedish Memorandum (1992) on the independence of universities and university colleges; the United Kingdom White Papers on higher education (1987 and 1991) and the 1997 report of the National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education (Dearing Report and Garrick Report for Scotland) and the Norwegian Royal Commissions of 1988 and 1992. In some cases such exercises led directly to change which was only subsequently supported by legislation.

In some countries in this group, with a traditionally more centralised approach to administration, the development of the higher education sector was often the result of non-legislative programmes, such as the Special Higher Education Programmes in Germany, or of the expansion of the contract-based financing system in France.

Other countries retained a much more centrally-controlled, legislation-led approach where planning is centralised and major acts are implemented only through formal legal processes which require government approval of the specific changes. This process generated a succession of decrees, decree-laws, by-laws or regulations covering specific areas to be reformed. These countries include Belgium (both the French and Flemish Communities), Greece, Spain (until the Autonomous Communities took over higher education from 1992 onwards), Italy, Luxembourg, Portugal, Iceland and Liechtenstein.

However, the evidence of this study is that most European countries have moved away from a centrally prescriptive approach to reform towards one which recognises the role and responsibility of the higher education institutions and the academic community in the implementation of change.

1.3. SYSTEMS WITH FEW REFORMS

Germany, Spain and France stand out as different from the other countries in this study due to the lack of major legislation on autonomy in higher education after the early 1980s. In most European countries, the debate about the autonomy of higher education institutions, particularly in relation to their financial independence, did not really begin until the mid-1980s and, as Table 1.1 shows, the great majority enacted most legislation in this area during the late 1980s and 1990s. Belgium, France, Spain and Italy decentralised part of their administration during the period under study, though only in Belgium and Spain was responsibility for the higher education institutions decentralised. However, all except Belgium have retained a significant level of central control over higher education through legally-defined rules and standards.

According to Wielemans and Vanderhoeven (1993), Belgian law does not treat the higher education sector as one system but distinguishes between university and non-university institutions. Legislation has traditionally had little impact on the universities which enjoy considerable autonomy. The authors suggest that a further barrier to fundamental reform arises from the linguistic and ideological differences reflected by the separate linguistic Communities and the different organising authorities (*pouvoir organisateur/inrichtende macht*) responsible for the higher education institutions. Certainly most legislation since 1980 in Belgium has focused on the restructuring of the non-university sector, but since 1994 the

French Community of Belgium has been equally concerned with the restructuring of the university sector. Due to the remaining major differences, universities and non-university institutions in the Flemish Community of Belgium do not enjoy exactly the same, but only nearly the same status. It can further be said that developments in this Community are moving somewhat in the direction of the Dutch model.

In Germany, there has been some lively debate about the future structure of higher education during the period under review but little direct legislation, apart from the 1985 amendments to the 1976 Higher Education Framework Act. Teichler (1991) argued that the constitutional guarantee of academic freedom meant that the Federal Government had relatively little influence over the administration of higher education institutions during the 1980s. The challenges of unification from 1990 have no doubt also played a role. However, there were some developments in the higher education system which resulted from the series of Special Higher Education Programmes (*Hochschulsonderprogramm I, II* and *III*), embarked upon from 1989 onwards which were not accompanied by legislation. Furthermore, the 1997 policy paper '*Hochschulen für das 21. Jahrhundert*' (*Higher Education Institutions for the 21st Century*) laid the ground for revision of the Higher Education Framework Act in 1998.

In France, there has been little explicit legislation relating to institutional autonomy since the 1984 Savary Act. During the 1990s, there have been several large consultative exercises about higher education including the *Assises nationales de l'enseignement supérieur* (national forum on the future of higher education) in 1990, and the 1996 *États généraux de l'université* (nation-wide consultation of all interested parties on university education), but apart from the increase in contract-based funding described above, relatively little has changed in French higher education as a result of these. There are several theories as to why reforms increasing institutional autonomy are apparently so difficult to implement in France. Neave (1991, pp 65-79) suggested that the lack of reform may be due to the difficulty of reconciling the various 'corporative interests' represented by the different ranks of French academics. Chevaillier (1998) argued that, until recently, the universities have not been very powerful as institutions in France and that French academics feel less allegiance to their institutions than to the national collegial group in their discipline.

In Spain, the 1983 Organic Act on University Reform was an ambitious and radical reform built on the new constitution approved in 1978, with the aim of extending the new democracy to the universities. It greatly increased the autonomy of the universities in order to create a system of independent and competitive institutions and it initiated the process of their transfer to the Autonomous Communities. The act provoked some initial opposition from the academic community who felt they had not been sufficiently consulted (Lamo de Espinosa 1993). The full implementation of the act took many years and considerable further legislation; the transfer to the Autonomous Communities was not complete until 1996/97. This long implementation period may explain the lack of further reforms in Spain.

In Italy, change in higher education during the period studied was a slow process. Most legislation was aimed either at a specific part of the higher education system (e.g. the 1990 Law laying down norms for the triennial planning process or the 1991 Law on the right to higher education), or at a wider field than higher education alone (such as the 1997 so-called Bassanini Laws which aimed to decentralise and simplify public administration). It was quite common for reforms approved by Parliament not to have been implemented effectively or for their effect to have been very different at regional or local level than had been anticipated at national level. In many cases, reforms that had been approved, waited many years before they were implemented in relevant decrees or regulations. In contrast, the implementation in 1999 of the 1997 Law on autonomy in public administration seems to be advancing well and may radically change the situation. The 1980 Presidential Decree reforming university teaching is included in the table of legislation above as a precursor to the Law from 1990. According to Moscati (1991), this decree was a very important step in the attempt to reform Italian universities, but its implementation was long and slow. It was apparently originally intended only to alter university career structures but later evolved into a partial reform of the structure and organisation of the whole university sector. However, its implementation was based on experimentation to encourage 'bottom-up' involvement in the process. This made it unduly dependent on the cooperation of the university sector to put the legislation into practice. Moscati suggests that the ideological and organisational gap between the public administration responsible for the legislation and the academic world responsible for the direct running of the university system explained its non-implementation during the 1980s and the general difficulty of reforming higher education in Italy during the period studied. Luzatto (1996) emphasises the lack of national planning and the insufficient impact made by innovations like the new first level degrees (*diploma*) introduced in 1990.

1.4. OVERVIEW OF REFORMS

This chapter has examined the legislative and policy instruments used by governments in the different European countries to bring about change in higher education. It has looked at the main areas of focus for legislation in the participating countries, shown that the reform process followed a different path in different countries, and documented moves towards a less prescriptive legislative approach to higher education in most countries. Its aim has been to introduce the issues to be considered in the rest of this document.

The pattern of legislation in many countries indicates a change in the relationship between the State and the higher education institutions during the period studied with a move towards the passing of broad framework acts which delineate the areas where higher education institutions have responsibility for decision-making. Most countries except Spain, France and Italy, have passed a major act influencing the management and control of higher education institutions during the 1990s. In many cases these acts replaced previous legislation, often combining and simplifying a number of legal instruments. In many countries this move towards the all-encompassing framework act coincided with reforms aimed at decentralising decision-making and reinforcing institutional management and its responsibility for teaching and research output. In the words of Neave and Van Vught (1991), most but not all countries were apparently moving towards the 'facilitatory state' mentioned in the introduction.

It is not easy to bring about change in higher education and, from the evidence of this chapter, it is particularly difficult to impose change from outside the system. The approach to reform in higher education varied in different countries. The Nordic and Northern European countries in particular tended to begin with a consultation process involving the various groups likely to be affected, often based on a published White Paper or Memorandum or carried out by an independent commission or reviewing body. In some cases these discussions led directly to change through experimental or pilot reform projects which were later enshrined in law. This 'bottom-up' approach recognises the importance of gaining the support of those, mainly within the higher education institutions, who will ultimately be responsible for the successful implementation of reform. It appears that change has been more successful and more extensive in such countries compared to those with a more centralised, legislation-led approach such as Greece, Spain and Italy. In these countries legislation which was passed by Parliament often waited many years before being implemented, or was repealed by subsequent legislation. Furthermore, it appears that even in some of the traditionally government-controlled systems such as those of Germany and France, change in higher education has increasingly come about through non-legislative, policy-led initiatives in collaboration with the institutions.

Analysis of the legislation relating to higher education passed during the period under consideration shows that the major focus of legislation and policy was the management and control of higher education institutions and in particular the financing of such institutions. Other important areas were the structure of the higher education system, quality control and evaluation of institutions and programmes, course structure and content, and admission to and dropout from higher education. Teaching and the assessment of students, as well as the internationalisation of higher education, were least likely to be the subject of legislation reflecting the responsibility of individual institutions and academics for such areas. Reforms in all of these areas are discussed in the relevant chapters.

Annex to

CHAPTER 1: LEGISLATION FOR CHANGE

Country tables

BELGIUM (French Community)

Context

Before the 1980s, higher education in Belgium was strongly influenced by the French model. The development of the non-university sector was much more pronounced in the Dutch-speaking part of the country, where, since the early 1980s, the majority of students in higher education have attended non-university institutions, while in the French-speaking part students have always favoured university education. The 1986 austerity plan *(Plan de la St. Anne)* introduced measures to cut public expenditure in higher education by increasing tuition fees and restricting grant eligibility. After the devolution of responsibility for education to the Communities in 1989, the French Community's higher education system underwent a number of changes. Reforms were undertaken in response to the growing number of students demanding access to higher education and to the economic crisis.

Summary of Reforms

Until 1980, the laws governing university education had remained essentially unchanged. The few changes that had been implemented were primarily budgetary. Reforms have reduced the differences between the university and non-university sectors. Growth in importance of the non-university sector and upgrading of qualifications offered.

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1983	***Décret réglant, pour la Communauté française, les allocations et les prêts d'études coordonné le 7 novembre 1983*** (Decree for the French Community on student grants and loans)	Restriction of the number and amount of grants.	Student financial assistance.
1986	***Plan de la St. Anne*** (St. Anne Plan)	Aimed to reduce expenditure on the expanding higher education sector by increasing the minimum number of students in each discipline, reducing the number eligible for grants and increasing tuition fees.	Financing of institutions; access to higher education; student financial aid.
1989	***Loi spéciale du 16 janvier 1989 relatif au financement des Communautés et des Régions*** (Special Law on the financing of the Communities and Regions)	Each of the three linguistic Communities became responsible for organising, financing and overseeing education according to its own objectives and priorities.	Financing of institutions.
1990	***Décret du 12 mars 1990 réglant le passage de l'enseignement supérieur de type court d'un cursus de deux ans à un cursus de trois ans*** (Decree on the organisation of short-type higher education)	The short-type higher education is extended from 2 to 3 years.	Structure of non-university higher education.
1994	***Décret du 5 septembre 1994 relatif au régime des études universitaires et des grades académiques*** (Decree on university studies and academic degrees)	Reformed the structure of courses and introduced the *grades académiques* as qualifications to replace the separate *grades legaux* and *grades scientifiques*.	Course structure and planning; management and control; access and wastage.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

BELGIUM (French Community) (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1995	***Décret du 5 août 1995 fixant l'organisation générale de l'enseignement supérieur en Hautes écoles*** (Decree on the general organisation of higher eduation at *Hautes écoles*)	A general plan was put forward for restructuring the non-university sector, with the aim of creating multidisciplinary institutions, *Hautes écoles*, merging institutions on the basis of common teaching programmes. The aim was to control the cost of higher education and to widen the educational offer in non-university higher education. Introduced greater student and staff participation in the management of higher education institutions. Abolished any remaining differences between entry requirements for the university and non-university sector. Stipulates that from now on any secondary school leaving certificate gives access to any type of higher education; grants access to higher education to people with non traditional qualifications.	Restructuring of non-university sector, access to higher education, management and control, quality control
1996	***Decrét du 9 septembre 1996 relatif au financement des Hautes écoles organisées ou subventionnées par la Communauté française*** (Decree on the financing of the *Hautes écoles* organised or subsidised by the French Community)	Bases the financing of the *Hautes écoles* on the attribution of a global budget. Part of this budget evolved historically, the rest is made up of a lump sum and a variable amount based on the course offer of each *Haute école*. To determine the latter, students are classified into 7 groups and a weighting coefficient is applied to each group.	Financing of *Hautes écoles*
1998	***Décret du 1er octobre 1998 modifiant la loi du 27 juillet 1971 sur le financement et le contrôle des institutions universitaires*** (Decree on the financing and control of universities)	Bases the financing on a global budget which is determined by the course offer of each institution. To calculate this budget, students are classified into 6 groups and a weighting factor is applied to each group.	Financing of universities

BELGIUM (Flemish Community)

Context

Before the 1980s, higher education in Belgium was strongly influenced by the French model. The development of the non-university sector was much more pronounced in the Dutch-speaking part of the country, where, since the early 1980s, the majority of students in higher education have attended non-university institutions, while in the French-speaking part students have always favoured university education. The 1986 austerity plan (*St.-Annaplan*) introduced measures to cut public expenditure in higher education by increasing tuition fees and restricting grant eligibility. After the devolution of responsibility for education to the Communities in 1989, the Belgian Flemish Community's higher education system began to move towards the Dutch model. Reforms were undertaken in response to the growing number of students demanding access to higher education and the economic crisis.

Summary of Reforms

Until 1980, the laws governing the form of university education remained essentially unchanged. The few changes that had been implemented were primarily budgetary. Policies in the 1980s aimed at creating specialised centres of excellence. Reforms have focused on reducing the differences between the university and non-university sectors resulting in the growing importance of the non-university sector and the upgrading of its qualifications. Cooperation with the Dutch umbrella organisation for universities (*VSNU*) to aid the higher education reform in the Belgian Flemish Community e.g. application of the Dutch model of quality assurance and control. Increased autonomy and change in the relationship between the Community and the higher education institutions following the passing of the 1991 and 1994 decrees.

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1970	***Wet van 7.07.70 betreffende de algemene structuur van het hoger onderwijs*** (Law on the general structure of higher education)	Grouped and classified post-secondary courses according to their aims and organisational structure, and established conditions of access to them.	Structure and access to higher education.
1983	***Besluit van 13.07.83 betreffende de studietoelagen voor hoger onderwijs*** (Decree regulating student financial support)	Restriction of the number and amount of grants.	Financial aid for students.
1984	***Omzendbrief van 26.06.84 (later bevestigt in decreet van 5.07.89)*** (Circular of 1984 confirmed by decree in 1989)	Reorganisation of teacher training outside the universities: the 2-year courses for pre-school and primary teachers were extended to 3 years. The non-university sector began to grow in importance.	Structure of higher education, upgrading of non-university institutions.
1986	***St.-Annaplan*** (St. Anne Plan) ***Koninklijk Besluit nr 60 van 17.09.86 tot vaststelling van het rationalisatieplan en programmatieplan van het hoger onderwijs van het korte type en tot wijziging van de wetgeving betreffende de organisatie van het hoger onderwijs van het lange type*** (Royal Decree on rationalisation plans in higher education)	Aimed to reduce expenditure on the higher education sector by increasing the minimum number of students in each field of study, reducing the number eligible for grants and increasing tuition fees.	Financing of institutions; access to higher education; student financial aid.

BELGIUM (Flemish Community) (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1989	***Bijzondere wet van 16.01.89 betreffende de financiering van de gemeenschappen en gewesten*** (Special Law on the financing of the Communities and Regions)	Each of the three linguistic Communities became responsible for organising, financing and overseeing education according to its own objectives and priorities.	Financing of institutions.
1990	***Decreet betreffende het onderwijs II van 31.07.90*** (Parliament of Flanders Decree on education no. II)	The short-type higher education in economics is extended from 2 to 3 years.	Structures of non-university higher education.
1991	***Decreet betreffende de universiteiten in de Vlaamse Gemeenschap van 12 juni 1991*** (Parliament of Flanders Decree on universities in the Flemish Community)	Reorganisation and simplification of the university education structure. Outlines the three main tasks of universities: conduct scientific research, strengthen university-level education and promote interaction with society at large by putting academic knowledge/expertise at its disposal. Increased institutional autonomy and introduced a new financing system. Application of the Dutch model of quality assessment whereby the regional government requires each university's governing board to undertake a quality review of departments and personnel once every 5 years under conditions set out by the central authority.	Management and control; financing of institutions; quality control; structure and access to university education; human resources.
1992	***Decreet betreffende het Onderwijs III van 9 april 1992*** (Parliament of Flanders Decree on education no. III)	All short-type higher education is extended from 2 to 3 years.	Structures of non-university higher education.
1994	***Decreet betreffende de hogescholen in de Vlaamse Gemeenschap van 13.07.94*** (Parliament of Flanders Decree on *hogescholen* in the Flemish Community)	New regulations were introduced in the academic year 1995/96 bringing the status of *hogescholen* and other non-university institutions closer to that of universities. This entailed the rewriting of curricula to create higher qualifications and the merger of higher education institutions into new *hogescholen*. More autonomy and new financing system.	Management and control; financing of institutions; quality control.
1996	***Decreet betreffende de lerarenopleiding en de nascholing*** (Parliament of Flanders Decree on teacher initial and in-service training)	Restructuring of teacher training programmes.	Course structure.
1997	***Besluit van de Vlaamse regering van 23.07.97 houdende regeling van de procedure en de voorwaarden van subsidiering van innovatieprojecten op het gebied van het hoger onderwijs*** (Government of Flanders Order on financial support for innovative projects in higher education)	Offered funding opportunities to higher education institutions wishing to carry out innovative projects.	Financing of higher education.

DENMARK

Context

A wide variety of educational institutions, courses and qualifications was an early characteristic of the Danish higher education system partly as a result of an exceptionally high GDP per capita and partly because of cultural and political choices. This variety has been further increased in the last 20 years by the development of non-academic higher education within the field of vocational (technical and commercial) education. Since 1990, there has been a development of higher level adult or open education. The number of students registered at universities increased greatly between 1960 and 1975, resulting in the introduction of a *numerus clausus* for all types of higher education institutions and courses in 1976. But from the early 1990s, the student intake was gradually liberalised again, and the *numerus clausus* system was abolished for a great majority of courses. The period up to the end of the 1980s was characterised by long actual study times and a high dropout rate, and these factors called for a reform of the study structure, as well as the financing system.

Summary of Reforms

Diversion of students from courses traditionally leading to public sector employment to courses preparing for private sector employment, particularly in industry, and from long *candidatus* degree courses in the university to shorter programmes in the college or vocational sector. Introduction of a new study structure at universities. Opening up of higher education to adults by enabling them to follow open university and other programmes on a part-time basis. Initiatives to decentralise the management of the institutions and to create closer links between the funding of teaching and exams actually passed.

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1984	***Forskerrekrutteringsplanen*** (New Blood Recruitment Plan)	Introduced a new staff structure and requirements for the employment of academic staff at universities.	Staffing: personnel structure
1988	***Bekendtgørelse nr. 557 om bachelorgraderne B.A. og B.S.*** (Ministerial Order on the introduction of Bachelor's degrees)	Students can now obtain a first degree after 3 years of study compared with 5 or 6 years previously. Laid the foundations for the reorganisation of the higher education course structure adopted in 1993.	Structure of higher education
1988a	***Bekendtgørelse af lov nr. 880 om statens uddannelsesstøtte*** (Consolidation Act on state education grants and loans) *came into force in 1989*	Major reform of the student support system. Introduction of study voucher system. Study abroad made possible for 4 years.	Financial aid to students; internationalisation
1989	***Lov nr. 210 om erhvervsskoler*** (Act on vocational colleges)	Changed among other things the principles for the financial management of the vocational colleges offering short-cycle higher education programmes. This reform introduced the 'taximeter' system at vocational colleges, which provides these colleges with grants to cover the cost of teaching (salaries, materials and equipment). Grants are based on the number of students per year irrespective of whether they pass examinations or not, but there is no grant for students repeating a semester.	Financing of institutions
1990	***Bekendtgorelse nr. 370 af lov om videregående teknikeruddannelser m.v*** (Consolidation Act on short-cycle higher technical education) *both came into force in 1991*		

DENMARK (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1990a	***Lov nr. 347 om åben uddannelse*** (Open Education Act)	Allowed universities and colleges to offer their normally full-time programmes on a part-time basis to adults outside working hours. The aim was to provide the entire adult population with the opportunity to achieve further qualifications in accordance with personal aspirations and career requirements. Created the possibility for everyone to upgrade their qualifications to the highest possible level.	Access to higher education; structure of higher education.
1992	***Flerårsaftalen*** (Multi-Annual Agreement)	Seven of the eight political parties in the Danish Parliament signed this agreement covering, among other things, the intake of students and the budget for the higher education sector. Created the basis for the gradual liberalisation of student intake, for the introduction of the 3+2+3 structure, and for the allocation of state block grants according to the 'taximeter' system etc.	Student intake; structure and financing of higher education.
1992a	***Finansloven*** (Finance Acts)	Establishment of the Centre for Quality Assurance and Evaluation of Higher Education to pilot a new quality assessment system. Initially established for a period of 5 years, but later extended until 1999. The centre is concerned with the implementation of quality evaluations of higher education programmes, and with offering guidance and encouragement to institutions to develop high quality programmes and gain and learn from experience on a national and international level.	Financing of institutions; quality control and evaluation.
1993	***Bekendtgørelse nr. 334 af lov om universiteter m. fl*** (Consolidation Act on Universities)	The main aim was scholarly and financial autonomy and clear decision-making powers for university management. A novel element is the presence of two external members in the two highest collegiate bodies, the Senate and the Faculty Council. These two members represent employers and hold expert knowledge in questions of education and research. Higher education institutions were given the autonomy to decide on the combination of courses they can offer and the number of students to be admitted. The role of the external examiners was strengthened.	Structure of higher education; management and control; course planning; quality control; access and wastage; teaching and assessment.
1993a	***Bekendtgørelse nr. 573 om studiestrukturen for uddannelser ved universiteter m.fl*** (Ministerial order on the course structure at universities, etc.)	Constitutes the legal basis for the 3+2+3 structure.	Structure of higher education.

DENMARK (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1994	***Budgetreformen*** (Budget reform)	The budget reform originated in the Multi-Annual Agreement of 1992. Grants for teaching expenditure are allocated based on the 'taximeter' principle. From 1994 onwards, the amount of the 'taximeter' grant is laid down in the annual Finance Act. The reform meant that grants were now allocated by programmes instead of, as previously, by main budget lines.	Financing of institutions.
1997	***Lov nr. 1115 om korte videregående uddannelser*** (Act on short-cycle higher education)	Reform of short-cycle higher education with a view to extending the range of programmes and to facilitating the continuation of studies in other areas of higher education. Programmes are regulated according to demand and must correspond to centrally set quality requirements. New programmes will normally be of two years' duration. Creation of a framework and targets for the reorganisation of existing courses and the development of new courses with a view to meeting the needs of the labour market.	Structure of higher education; quality control.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

GERMANY

Context

Continuous growth in demand for higher education from the 1960s onwards. Pressure on higher education resources. Strengthening of Federal Government (*Bund*) role in higher education from the 1950s onwards. Restructuring of higher education institutions to form new types of institutions (*Fachhochschulen* and *Gesamthochschulen*) as part of fundamental reform during the 1970s. Establishing the group university by strengthening the parity power of assistant teachers (*Mittelbau*) and students. German reunification in 1990 and need to integrate two different higher education systems.

Summary of Reforms

Reforms during the 1980s aimed to create higher education institutions which were more competitive, diverse and appropriately organised. However, the failed attempt to introduce systematic planning led to the gradual worsening of conditions for teaching and learning accentuated by the decreases in funding after 1990. Increasing pressure for reforms during the 1990s led to the revision of the *HRG* (Higher Education Framework Act) in 1998. Development of the higher education sector was also the result of non-legislative Special Higher Education Programmes (*HSP I, II & III*). Reunification has given the new *Länder* the responsibility for higher education in collaboration with the supra-regional coordination and planning bodies. The evaluation and subsequent closure of higher education institutions led to a considerable reduction in staffing and a move away from highly specialised institutions in the five new *Länder*.

Year		Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1976		***Hochschulrahmengesetz - HRG*** (Higher Education Framework Act)	Regulated the structure and organisation of higher education in Germany and served as the first uniform legal basis for higher education institutions. The act introduced a system for the nation-wide recognition of student attainments and examination results and provided the basis for a democratically organised university based on participatory management. Provided for a system of long-term, target-oriented planning which was never put into practice.	Access to higher education; staffing; higher education development planning procedure; management and control.
1985		Series of laws to amend the *HRG*		
	a	***Zweites Gesetz zur Änderung des Hochschulrahmengesetzes vom 28. März 1985*** (Second law to amend the *HRG*)	Revision of the application procedure for higher education; introduction of a multi-stage procedure for selective courses.	Access to higher education.
	b	***Gesetz über befristete Arbeitsverträge mit dem wissenschaftlichen Personal vom 14. Juni 1985*** (Law on temporary contracts with academic personnel)	Revision of procedures for employment contracts for temporary academic staff.	Staffing.
	c	***Drittes Gesetz zur Änderung des Hochschulrahmengesetzes vom 14. November 1985*** (Third law to amend the *HRG*)	Introduction of far-reaching changes to the legislative framework for higher education in Germany.	Structure of higher education institutions; reform of courses of study; personnel structure.
1989 (to 1995)		***Hochschulsonderprogramm - HSP I*** (Special Higher Education Programme I)	Special programme aimed at funding 3,200 additional posts to create extra teaching capacity (17,000 study places) for high demand courses, especially management sciences.	Staffing; student intake; multimedia.

GERMANY (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1990	Legislation on restructuring higher education in the new German *Länder*	Set out the basic principles for the organisation of higher education institutions in the new German *Länder* by adopting higher education regulations derived from the *HRG*.	All aspects of higher education (legislation, staffing, curriculum, *Fachhochschulen*)
1990a **(to present)**	***Hochschulsonderprogramm - HSP II*** (Special Higher Education Programme II)	Special programme to maintain the level of performance of higher education institutions by introducing measures in favour of younger academic personnel (creation of 2 500 new posts and accelerated promotion of younger staff)	Staffing
1996 **(to present)**	***Hochschulsonderprogramm - HSP III*** (Special Higher Education Programme III)	Special programme to improve the infrastructure of higher education (tutoring, multimedia-based teaching, evaluation of teaching, etc.). Development of the *Fachhochschule* sector; enhancement of international cooperation; promotion of younger academic personnel (support for post-doctoral work, anticipatory appointments, etc.); targeted support for women; completion of the higher education modernisation programme in the new German *Länder*.	Teaching methods, quality control, staffing, *Fachhochschulen*, international cooperation
1997	***'Hochschulen für das 21. Jahrhundert'*** (Policy paper: *Higher Education Institutions for the 21st Century*)	This paper laid the ground for the amendment of the *HRG* in 1998 by examining the development problems and structural deficits threatening the effectiveness and international competitiveness of German higher education.	Access to higher education, staffing, course structure
1998	***Viertes Gesetz zur Änderung des Hochschulrahmengesetzes vom 20.8.1998*** (Fourth Law to amend the *HRG*)	Main provisions of the amendment: • Performance-oriented allocation of funds to higher education institutions • Evaluation of research and teaching activities • Redefinition of the standard period of study • Intensification of the academic counselling duties of the higher education institutions • Introduction of an intermediate examination for all courses with a regular course duration of at least four years • Trial examinations in all courses where suitable • Introduction of a credit system for the accumulation and the transfer of points earned • Awarding of Bachelor's and Master's degrees • Introduction of a performance-related quota system for placement of applicants • Introduction of a selection procedure by the higher education institutions in addition to the general selection procedure for courses with restricted admission	All aspects of higher education (course structure, financing, access to higher education, evaluation and quality control)

GREECE

Context

Higher education developed according to the Humboltian model with powerful professorial chairs and little autonomy for institutions. Demand for higher education grew rapidly after the Second World War. A major reform of higher education was delayed until the 1980s due to the military dictatorship. In 1981, accession to the European Community

Summary of Reforms

During the 1980s, higher education institutions were granted more autonomy. The influence of professors in institutional management was reduced and a more democratic governance allowing for student participation introduced. Large increase in demand for higher education but little increase in places available. The 1997 reforms aimed to consolidate the modernisation of higher education and to increase the participation rate

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1982	***Nomos 1268*** (Framework Act on a new structure and the functioning of universities)	Most fundamental post-war act to modernise universities. Universities were granted more autonomy in relation to management and course planning; departments, rather than professors, were given the responsibility for their activities, and holders of executive posts (rector, vice-rector, deans, departmental presidents) were to be elected by staff and student representatives. The National Council of Higher Education was created to advise the Government on higher education issues. Postgraduate courses were introduced. Introduction of student loans.	Management and control; financing of institutions; financial support for students.
1983	***Nomos 1351*** (Act on access to higher education)	Introduced general entrance examinations.	Access to higher education.
1983a	***Nomos 1404*** (Act on the structure and function of Technological Educational Institutions)	Created the Technological Educational Institutions (*TEI*s) and the Council of Technological Training with representation from scientific, professional and social organisations to advise the Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs about the development of the *TEI*s.	Organisation and structure of higher education.
1992	***Nomos 2083*** (Act to modernise higher education)	Reform Act modifying certain articles of the 1982 Framework Act. It only briefly came into force, being largely repealed after a change of government in 1993.	Management and control.
1995	***Nomos 2327*** (Act to create the National Education Council)	Changed the National Council of Higher Education to the National Education Council to advise the Government on strategic and social priorities across all stages of education. Created links between higher education and the needs of the economy. Abolished student loans.	Management and control; financial support for students.

GREECE (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1997	***Ekpedevsi 2000*** (Education 2000 Act)	Aimed to radically revise higher education provision and to adjust it to international standards. Abolition of the 'general examinations' for the admission to higher education from June 2000 granting free access to higher education. The number of higher education places will be increased to cope with the expected rise in demand. Cross-departmental, flexible, extended university programmes are being created. *AEI* and *TEI* programmes will be restructured using new technology and new pedagogic materials. Postgraduate programmes will be developed further and improved. In addition to public financing of education, universities receive funds from Special Research Accounts.	Access to higher education; course planning; structure and content; teaching; quality evaluation; financing of institutions.
1997a	***Nomos 2552*** (Act to establish the Open University 2552/1997)	Establishment of the Open University. Free access to anybody with an upper secondary certificate; no entrance examination. Priority for enrolment given to candidates aged 23 to 45 and those from frontier regions.	Access to higher education.

SPAIN

Context

Development of democracy and a welfare state after 1995. A new democratic Constitution was passed in 1978 preparing the ground for subsequent legislation. Accession to the European Community in 1986. Increasing participation in university education. 95% of higher education is university-based.

Summary of Reforms

Decentralisation of universities to 17 Autonomous Communities. Increased autonomy for universities. Establishment of a national system for the evaluation of universities. Development of a non-university, mainly vocational higher education.

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1978	***Constitución Española de 27 de diciembre de 1978*** (The Spanish Constitution)	Stipulates the rights to education and grants universities institutional autonomy. Establishes 17 Autonomous Communities and determines the distribution of powers between the State and these Communities in the educational field. Sets the framework for subsequent reforms.	Management and control
1983	***Ley Orgánica 11/1983, de 25 de agosto, de Reforma Universitaria - LRU*** (Organic Act on University Reform) Further reforms were implemented via decrees and orders.	Clarified the powers of the State, Autonomous Communities and institutions in relation to higher education. Development of university autonomy (statutory autonomy, academic autonomy plus more power for departments, financial autonomy and autonomy to select and promote lecturers); establishment of a student financial aid system; creation of a Council of Universities with representation from the Ministry, the Autonomous Communities and the universities to coordinate, plan and evaluate the provision for higher education. The act is not yet fully implemented.	Access to higher education; management and control; financing of institutions; quality control and evaluation; financial aid to students; course planning and content.
1983a	***Real Decreto 2298/1983, de 28 de julio, por el que se regula el sistema de becas y otras ayudas al estudio de carácter personalizado*** (Royal Decree on grants and other forms of assistance to students)	Established general rules covering grants to students in economic need.	Student financial aid.
1986	***Ley 13/1986, de 14 de abril, de fomento y coordinación general de la investigación científica y técnica*** (Act on the promotion and general coordination of scientific and technical research)	Laid down the National Plan for Scientific Research and Technological Development to promote basic research. Set up the Interministerial Commission of Science and Technology for the coordination and the follow-up of the National Plan. Established the Centre for Technological and Industrial Development in order to promote the introduction of new technologies.	Research

SPAIN (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1987	***Real Decreto 1497/1987, de 27 de noviembre, por el que se establecen directrices generales comunes de los planes de estudio de los títulos universitarios de carácter oficial y validez en todo el territorio nacional*** (Royal Decree 1497/1987 establishing guidelines for course structure and official degrees and their nationwide recognition)	Laid down general guidelines for the planning, structure and content of university courses and for the recognition of degrees.	University higher education; course planning and structure.
1990	***Ley Orgánica 1/1990, de 3 de octubre, de Ordenación General del Sistema Educativo - LOGSE*** (Organic Act 1/1990 on the general organisation of the education system)	The act does not specifically refer to higher education but regulates the structure and content of specific vocational training and art education at higher education level.	Non-university higher education.
1992	***Ley Orgánica 9/1992, de 23 de diciembre, de transferencia de competencias a Comunidades Autónomas que accedieron a la autonomía por la vía del articulo 143 de la Constitución*** (Organic Act 9/1992 on the transfer of powers to the Autonomous Communities)	Allowed the devolution of responsibility for universities to Autonomous Communities whose autonomy is stipulated in Art. 143 of the 1978 Constitution.	Management and control; financing of institutions.
1993	***Real Decreto 676/1993, de 7 de mayo, por el que se establecen directrices sobre los títulos y las correspondientes enseñanzas mínimas de formación profesional*** (Royal Decree 676/1993, establishing guidelines on the qualifications and the corresponding minimum level of vocational training required)	Laid down general guidelines for qualifications and curricula for higher level vocational training.	Non-university higher education, vocational training, course structure.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

SPAIN (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1994	***'Informe sobre la financiación de las universidades'*** (Report on the financing of the universities)	Recommended increases in spending on higher education, especially on the non-university sector, and in self-financing of the public universities, especially through tuition fees and contract-based funding. Further recommended the introduction of new funding formulae promoting quality and competence and a new student aid system including loans. Insisted on institutional reform to improve coordination between universities and to render institutional management more efficient.	Financing of higher education.
1995	***Real Decreto 1947/1995, de 1 de diciembre, por el que se establece el Plan Nacional de Evaluación de la Calidad de las Universidades*** (Royal Decree 1947/1995, on the quality assessment of universities)	Established the National Plan for the Quality Assessment of Universities in order to promote and harmonise the evaluation process. Evaluation results are intended to give the educational authorities, students and society at large an objective view of the quality of higher education.	Quality control and evaluation.

FRANCE

Context

Higher education system with open access to universities and selective access to prestigious *Grandes ecoles*. Strong growth in higher education student population during 1960s. Student protests of 1968. 1970s economic recession. Continuing growth and diversification in the student population with the creation of technical and vocational *baccalauréats*.

Summary of Reforms

Continued expansion of higher education provision, particularly outside traditional universities and *Grandes écoles*. Diversification of higher education provision with the creation of the higher technical sections (*sections de techniciens supérieurs*) and the technical university institutes (*instituts universitaires de technologie*). Introduction of the right to continuing education (Delors Act 1971) and involvement of universities in such provision. Increasing regional involvement in funding and planning higher education. Strengthening of the autonomy of higher education institutions within a centrally-imposed framework: increasing use of steering through funding contracts with the Ministry of Education; introduction of a new financing system in early 1994 granting institutions more freedom to decide on how to spend the allocated budget, simplification of study courses.

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1968	***Loi d'Orientation sur l'enseignement supérieur du 11 novembre 1968 - Loi Faure*** (Blueprint Act on higher education - Faure Act)	Major reform of the university sector. Replaced Napoleonic faculties by a large number of multi-disciplinary universities divided into teaching and research units (*UERs*). They were intended to be fairly autonomous with primarily *a posteriori* control, but until the end of the 1980s their autonomy was restricted mainly to teaching methods. Students and academic personnel were to be involved in decision-making. The multi-disciplinary format had little success with the *UERs* adopting the old administrative approach of the departments or former faculties. The act was not completely implemented before the adoption of the 1984 Act.	Management and control
1984	***Loi sur l'enseignement supérieur du 26 janvier 1984 - Loi Savary*** (Higher Education Act - Savary Act)	Applied to the whole of the public higher education sector. Strengthened institutional autonomy by giving them the right to enter into four-year contracts with the State based on a development plan addressing both national objectives and local training needs. Creation of *CNE* (*Comité National d'Évaluation*), the national body for the evaluation of universities. Selection of students was not permitted but prepared the grounds for better guidance of students during their first study cycle. Professional skills could be validated for entry to higher education. Students and lecturers were granted more representation on the institutions' councils provoking much opposition from professors who often found themselves in a minority. Many universities initially refused to implement the required changes and only in 1988 were all institutions forced to amend their statutes in accordance with the Faure Act. Student grants were increased and a new calculation method was introduced.	Management and control; access to higher education; financing of institutions; student financial aid; quality control.

FRANCE (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1983 to 1985	***Lois de décentralisation*** (Decentralisation Laws)	Higher education explicitly remained the responsibility of the State, but regions were invited to contribute to its financing, particularly in relation to vocational training, which became a regional responsibility, and research.	Management and control; financing of higher education.
1989	***Loi d'Orientation sur l'education du 10 juillet 1989 - Loi Jospin*** (Blueprint Act on education - Jospin Act)	Had little effect on higher education itself except to create the *instituts universitaires de formation de maitres* (*IUFM*s) to train primary and secondary teachers at university level.	Upgrading of non-university courses.
1989a	***Assises nationales de l'enseignement supérieur: 'Université 2000: Quelle université pour demain'*** (National forum on the future of higher education)	Discussed the future development of higher education and the role of the regions in this. Led to a series of agreements between the State and the regions to finance a significant programme of construction of new higher education institutions in collaboration with the territorial entities of *départements* and *communes*.	Financing of institutions.
1990	***Plan Université 2000*** (University 2000 Plan)	University building development programme.	Financing of institutions.
1992	***Arrêté du 26 mai 1992*** (Order of 26 May 1992)	Reform of the first and second university cycles introducing more guidance and information for students, including a tutoring system.	Access and wastage; internationalisation.
1994	***Décret du 14 janvier 1994 relatif au budget et au régime financier des établissements publics à caractère scientifique, culturel et professionnel (EPSCP)*** (Decree on the budget and financial system of the *EPSCP*) *came into force in 1997*	Allowed all scientific, cultural and vocational public higher education institutions (*EPSCP*s - *universities, instituts nationaux polytechniques, écoles normales supérieures* and *écoles et instituts exterieurs aux universités*) to construct their budget based on policies ('management budgeting') rather than on administrative entities. It reinforced management control but also encouraged the devolution of decision-making within institutions.	Financing; management and control.

FRANCE (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1996	***Consultation nationale: 'États généraux de l'Université'*** (Nation-wide consultation of all interested parties on university education)	Discussion based on a series of proposals by Minister Bayrou focusing mainly on the simplification and updating of university programmes and on student aid. Universities were encouraged to organise systematic evaluation of teaching. Some propositions were implemented before the change of government in 1997.	Quality control and evaluation; course planning, structure and content; student financial aid.
1996a	***Conclusions de la Commission Fauroux: 'Pour l'École'*** (Conclusions of the Fauroux Commission)	The Commission investigated the whole of the education system. With regard to higher education it made recommendations in relation to autonomy, teaching and management, and for the improvement of the transition from secondary to higher education through guidance and tutoring.	Management and control; access and wastage.

IRELAND

Context

Rapid development of higher education after joining the European Community in 1973 due to support from Structural Funds, with special emphasis on vocational training.

Summary of Reforms

Major growth in student numbers (600% between 1965 and 1995). Further development of vocational higher education through regional technology colleges with some recently upgraded to institutes of technology. Increasing parity between university and non-university sector. Institutions are given more autonomy from direct government control due to the creation of intermediary bodies, like the Higher Education Authority (HEA) and the National Council for Educational Awards (NCEA). Modern legal framework for universities adopted in 1997.

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1971	**Higher Education Authority Act**	Established the Higher Education Authority (HEA) with advisory and planning responsibility for the whole of higher education in Ireland. The HEA became the main funding agency for universities and 'designated institutions'.	Management and control; financing of institutions.
1979	**National Council for Educational Awards Act**	Established the National Council for Educational Awards (NCEA) responsible for the promotion, coordination and development of the non-university higher education sector for approving and recognising courses and for awarding degrees, diplomas and certificates to students.	Quality control.
1989	**Dublin City University Act** **University of Limerick Act**	The two National Institutes of Higher Education (NIHEs) were awarded university status and the nearby colleges of education were linked to these, upgrading teacher training to university level.	Upgrading of non-university institutions.
1992	**Regional Technical Colleges Act**	Gave statutory recognition to regional technical colleges, providing courses in the areas of business, engineering and science. Granted these institutions a large degree of institutional autonomy over staffing, property, budgeting and development planning.	Structure of higher education; management and control.
1992a	**Dublin Institute of Technology Act**	Established the Dublin Institute of Technology.	Structure of higher education.
1992b	**Green Paper: *Education for a Changing World***	Strategic document outlining the future form of higher education: new admission procedures, modularisation of curricula, credit accumulation and transfer, quality assurance and a single funding body for higher education.	Course structure; financing of institutions; access to higher education; quality control.
1995	Abolition of student fees in higher education (no legislation necessary)		Access to higher education; financial aid to students.
1995a	**White Paper: *Charting our Education Future***	A new approach to education by including all educational provision, from school to higher education, within continuing education. Proposals in relation to higher education later formed the basis for the 1997 Universities Act.	Financial support for students; access and wastage.

IRELAND (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1997	**Universities Act**	Provided a modern legal framework for the universities. Legislated in relation to financial and academic accountability, governance and autonomy, transparency, quality assurance, equality and funding of institutions. Amended the 1909 Act in such a way that the University College Dublin, the University College Cork, the University College Galway and the St Patrick's College Maynooth are now constituent parts of the National University of Ireland, each enjoying a higher degree of autonomy.	Structure of higher education; management and control; financing of institutions; quality control.

ITALY

Context

Higher education, for the purposes of the following table, is academic, university provision only. Massive increase in demand for university places as a result of Law 910 of 1969. During the 1970s and 1980s, universities suffered from low investment and low productivity whereby only 6% of registered students graduated and 30% had out-stayed the maximum course time '*fuori corsi*'. The reform of the higher education system in the 1990s was made necessary by a profound crisis in the university system reflecting the political, economic and social problems in Italy. The traditional political parties which had governed Italy since the Second World War lost power and new political alliances arose, favoured by a new electoral law which transformed the primarily proportional system into a primarily majority one. There were long time gaps between the passing of legislation and its implementation via decrees and regulations. The centre-left coalition Government which came to power in 1996 continued restructuring public finances with a view to meeting the Maastricht criteria and decentralising public administration.

Summary of Reforms

Gradual process of liberalisation and devolution of autonomy to higher education institutions. Most reforms were introduced after 1989.

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1969	***Legge n. 910, 11.12.1969*** (Law 910)	Following the massification of higher education, which had started at the beginning of the 1960s, Law 910 liberalised higher education by granting to all upper secondary school leavers free access to all faculties. Liberalised study plans and increased the flexibility of university curricula.	Access to higher education; course planning
1973	***Legge n. 766, 30.11.1973*** (Law 766)	Addressed the need for additional university teaching staff and its re-organisation in response to the rising demand for university education.	Staffing
1980	***Decreto del Presidente della Repubblica 382*** (Presidential Decree 382 on the reform of university teaching)	Initiated a slow reform process which altered the recruitment and career path of university staff, authorised, on an experimental basis, a departmental structure with financial and administrative autonomy to coordinate research activities instead of control by individual professors, and created a range of new collegiate bodies such as the degree course councils to oversee teaching activities and coordinate coursework and students' study plans. Introduction of doctoral programmes with postgraduate scholarships.	Staffing, course planning, management and control, research
1989	***Legge n. 168, 9.5.1989 che istituisce il Ministero dell'Università e della Ricerca Scientifica e Tecnologica (MURST)*** (Law 168 establishing the Ministry of Universities and Scientific and Technological Research)	Established the Ministry of Universities and Scientific and Technological Research to coordinate university activities and allocate funding. Increased the institutional, administrative and cultural autonomy of universities by allowing areas which were previously subject to national regulations to be covered by the university statutes.	Management and control
1990	***Legge n. 245, 7.8.1990*** (Law 245)	Norms governing the universities' triennial development plans. Aimed to introduce equitable university planning to avoid regional imbalances. The measures did not have the desired effect.	Development planning at a national level

ITALY (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1990a	***Legge n. 341, 19.11.1990*** (Law 341 on the reorganisation of university teaching)	Defined three levels at which universities could award degrees: first level diploma after 2-3 years, second level diploma (*laurea*) and third level diploma (*diploma di specializzazione*). Course planning according to tables of courses defined by the Ministry. Introduced university training for nursery and primary school teachers, though the latter was not implemented until 1998.	Course structure.
1991	***Legge n. 390, 2.12.1991*** (Law 390 on the right to higher education)	Defined the role of the State, regions and universities in student aid following the transfer of certain responsibilities to the regions in 1977. The State acts as coordinator, while the regions are responsible for administering grants and providing services such as cafeterias and accommodation for students. Individual universities were allowed to grant exemptions from fees and to give part-time work to students. Introduction of interest-free loans. Aid to students was refocused on merit.	Student financial aid.
1991a	***Legge n. 243, 29.7.1991*** (Law 243 on private universities)	Established legal recognition of, and financial support for, private universities.	Private higher education.
1993	***Legge n. 537, 24.12.1993*** (Law 537 on the rationalisation of public finances)	Gave universities full autonomy in budget spending. Increased the institutional autonomy for the management of staff and in setting tuition fees. Internal evaluation centres were set up in each university.	Institutional finance, management and control.
1994	***Decreto del Presidente del Consiglio dei Ministri, 13.4.1994*** (Decree of the President of the Council of Ministers)	This Decree and associated executive rulings (see also under 1997) were required to implement Law 390 of 1991. Introduced measures to ensure uniform treatment of students when awarding grants and assessing the amounts of fees to be paid across different regions.	Financial support to students.
1996	***Decreto Ministeriale, 22.2.1996*** (Ministerial Decree on the assessment of the university system)	Created the Observatory (*Osservatorio*) to assess the university system through the evaluation of research and teaching activities in relation to the triennial development plan.	Quality control and evaluation.
1996a	***Legge n. 622, 23.12.1996*** (Law 662 on the rationalisation of public finances)	Tackled extreme overcrowding by agreeing with largest universities to create new campuses and divide faculties. Reform of development planning system to end indiscriminate quantitative expansion and to focus on quality.	Management and control; financing of institutions.

ITALY (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1997	***Legge n. 59, 15.3.1997*** (Law 59 on the transfer of functions and tasks to the regions and local bodies) ***Legge n. 127, 15.5.1997*** (Law 127 introducing urgent measures to facilitate administrative activities, decision-making and supervisory procedures)	The so-called 'Bassanini Laws' granted universities financial and teaching autonomy in an attempt to simplify and deregulate public administration. The development of curricula, previously defined by rigid tables established by the Ministry, was now the responsibility of individual universities which were guided by very general national regulations. The laws provided norms for the development, planning and assessment of the university system and its activities and reorganised the university councils to make their representation more balanced. The ISEFs (*instituti superiori di educazione fisica* - higher institutes of physical education) were upgraded to university level.	Management and control; finance; course planning; upgrading of vocational higher education.
1997a	***Decreto del Presidente del Consiglio dei Ministri, 30.4.1997*** ***Decreto del Presidente del Consiglio dei Ministri, 28.7.1997*** (Decrees of the President of the Council of Ministers on the right to higher education) ***Decreto Ministeriale, 24.7.1997*** (Ministerial Decree of 24.7.1997)	These and associated executive rulings were required to implement Law 390 of 1991. They introduced uniform criteria for awarding grants and for assessing the amount of fees to be paid by students across different regions. Introduced a regional tax on enrolment destined entirely to finance student support.	Student financial aid.
1997b	***Legge n. 196, 24.6.1997*** (Law 196 on the labour market and access to it)	Established a system of non-university higher education 'higher technical training', on an experimental basis. In 1999, the system was further developed.	Structure of higher education.
1997c	***Decreto Ministeriale 245, 21.7.1997*** (Ministerial Decree on the access to higher education and related guidance activities)	Allowed universities to limit the number of students admitted for some types of courses: human and veterinary medicine, architectural courses and studies requiring specialist training as part of the course. Introduced a pre-enrolment system to help institutional planning and to provide a student guidance system through upper secondary schools in collaboration with universities.	Access and wastage.
1998	***Legge n. 210, 3.7.1998*** (Law 210) 1969	Transferred the responsibility for recruiting researchers and appointing university professors from the central level to the individual universities. The majority of the members of the selecting committees are however elected by professors in the relevant field on a nation-wide basis.	Employment of teaching staff.

LUXEMBOURG

Context

Limited higher education offer, entirely state-financed. Most students study abroad.

Summary of Reforms

Development of technical and vocational higher education offer and of research capacity. Upgrading of many vocational and professional courses to higher education level. Increase in the autonomy of the two main institutions, the Luxembourg University Centre (*Centre universitaire de Luxembourg - CUNLUX*) and the Higher Institute of Technology of Luxembourg (*Institut supérieur de technologie de Luxembourg - IST*).

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1969	***Loi du 18 juin 1969 sur l'enseignement supérieur et l'homologation des titres et grades étrangers d'enseignement supérieur*** (Act on higher education and the recognition of foreign higher education qualifications)	Establishment of the basis for the present Luxembourg higher education system and of the Luxembourg University Centre (*CUNLUX*).	Structure of higher education.
1977	***Loi du 8 décembre 1977 concernant l'aide financière de l'État pour études supérieures*** (Act on state financial assistance for higher education studies)	Introduction of a student financial aid system. The amount of grants and loans (interest-free and/or interest-bearing) is linked to the parents' and/or student's income. The cost of living is also taken into account.	Student financial aid.
1979	***Loi du 21 mai 1979 portant création d'un Institut supérieur de technologie*** (Act on the creation of a Higher Institute of Technology)	Created a Higher Institute of Technology (*IST*).	Structure of higher education.
1983	***Loi du 6 septembre 1983 portant création d'un Institut supérieur d'études et de recherches pédagogiques*** (Act on the creation of a Higher Institute for Pedagogical Studies and Research)	Increase in the length of training of primary and pre-school teachers from two to three years.	Upgrading of professional courses.
1990	***Loi du 6 août 1990 portant organisation des études éducatives et sociales*** (Act on the organisation of training educational childcare staff)	Established training courses for educational childcare staff at the Institut for Educational and Social Studies (*Institut d'études éducatives et sociales - IEES*).	Upgrading of professional courses.

LUXEMBOURG (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1992	***Loi du13 mars 1992 portant modification à la loi du 8 décembre 1977 concernant l'aide financière de l'État pour études supérieures*** (Act modifying the Act of 8 December 1977 on state financial assistance for higher education studies)	Aimed to further encourage young people to study by offering more financial support. Grants were linked to family income and loans with 2% interest rates offered. Special grants for students who progress well (successful completion of the first stage of university study within the normal period of time plus one additional year). Increase of the maximum grant amount. Interest-free loans were abolished. More aid for students from families with several dependent children.	Student financial aid.
1996	***Loi du 11 août 1996 portant réforme de l'enseignement supérieur*** (Act reforming higher education) *came into force in 1997*	Introduction of financial, administrative, pedagogical and scientific autonomy for the main higher education institutions (*CUNLUX* and *IST*). Creation of a National Council of Higher Education to advise, co-ordinate and evaluate the sector.	Management and control; financing of institutions; quality control and evaluation.

NETHERLANDS

Context

In the 1970s, there was an increasing demand for higher education, which was considered essential for economic growth. At the same time the poor performance of the universities which translated into a high student dropout ratio and long actual periods of study, gave rise to concern. Public spending in general and on higher education in particular suffered extensive cuts. There was a need for greater differentiation in higher education.

Summary of Reforms

Government policy aimed at encouraging the higher education system to develop into a flexible, differentiated, efficient and cost-effective system. Upgrading of professional education to higher professional education (*hoger beroepsonderwijs - HBO*)[1]. During the 1980s, some institutions were merged and others closed down in an effort to cut costs, stimulate cooperation and promote specialisation. Institutions were granted more autonomy and were at the same time made more accountable for the use of public funds by the introduction of a system of external quality control. Increased institutional autonomy also required a new approach to development planning and a two-year planning cycle was introduced in 1987. Every two years, the government issues a Higher Education and Research Plan (*hoger onderwijs en onderzoek plan - HOOP*) and, during the following year, the other parties concerned are invited to submit their views on the Plan.

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1978	***Nota 'Hoger onderwijs voor velen'*** (Memorandum *Higher Education for the Many*)	Set out a number of principles for higher education: • everyone entitled and showing the appropriate aptitude and interest should be put in a position to pursue a course of higher education • attempts will be made to create a two-phase structure for university education • the length of degree courses must not exceed four years • the period of registration as a student may exceed the course length by only one year, i.e. comprise a total of five years • after the degree examination, selection will take place for a second study phase lasting one or two years.	Structure of and access to higher education.
1981	***Wet Twee-Fasenstructuur*** (Two-Phase Structure Act)	This act divided university education into two phases. The length of the first phase was fixed at four years, beginning with a preliminary year and ending with the degree examination. The second phase lasted for two years and was intended for specific professional courses (such as medical or pharmaceutical training), specific training for scientific researchers or teacher training. The act forced the universities to take a careful look at their study programmes and to reorganise them in such a way as to allow students to complete their course within the prescribed period of time.	Course structure and planning.
1982	***Taakverdeling en concentratie in het wetenschappelijk onderwijs - TVC*** (White Paper on the allocation of tasks and concentration in university education)	Aimed to reduce the cost of the university sector, stimulate cooperation and concentrate research activities. The Minister determined the general framework and the institutions themselves decided whether they wanted to realise savings through regional cooperation, the concentration of courses in specific universities, the division of tasks between universities or the closure of certain university departments.	Financing of institutions; structure of higher education.

---

[1] The *HBO* is taught in *hogescholen* which abroad generally call themselves 'universities of professional education'.

NETHERLANDS (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1983	***Schaalvergroting, taakverdeling en concentratie in het hoger beroepsonderwijs - STC*** (Memorandum on the increase in scope, allocation of tasks and concentration in higher professional education)	Proposed the creation of medium-sized, multidisciplinary *HBO* institutions and outlined a new internal structure for these institutions. Aimed to strengthen, restructure and upgrade *HBO* institutions both from a management and educational point of view.	Structure of higher education; management and control.
1984	***Machtigingswet beperking inschrijving hoger beroepsonderwijs*** (Enabling Act regulating access to higher professional education)	Regulated student influx by adapting it to the needs of the labour market. *A numerus clausus* was introduced for specific courses.	Access to higher education.
1984a	***Wet op de Open Universiteit - WOU*** (Open University Act)	Creation of the Open University.	Access to and structure of higher education.
1985	***Wet op het wetenschappelijk onderwijs - WWO*** (University Education Act) *came into force in 1986*	The main aim of this Act was to increase the efficiency of university administration. An intermediate step along the route that would ultimately lead to the *WHW*.	Management and control of universities; quality control; course planning.
1985a	***Nota 'Hoger Onderwijs, Autonomie en Kwaliteit' - HOAK Nota*** (Memorandum *Higher Education: Autonomy and Quality*)	Outlined a new approach to government steering, 'control at a distance'. Accountability of institutions was based on *post-hoc* external quality control via the Association of Dutch Universities (*VSNU*). Introduced the idea of a two-year planning cycle as later introduced by the *HOOP*.	Management and control; quality control.
1985b	***Wet op het hoger beroepsonderwijs - WHBO*** (Higher Professional Education Act)	Transferred higher professional education from the secondary education sector to the higher education sector as a distinct type of education. The principle of institutional autonomy was extended from the universities to the higher professional institutions.	Upgrading and restructuring of *HBO* sector; management and control; financing of institutions; quality control; teaching and assessment.
1986	***Notitie 'Kaderstelling selectieve krimp en groei universiteiten en academische ziekenhuizen'*** (White Paper *Framework for the Selective Contraction and Expansion of Universities and University Hospitals*)	Used quality arguments to implement budget cuts in universities. The Minister, on the basis of recommendations from experts, determined the measures to be introduced.	Financing of institutions.

NETHERLANDS (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1986a	***Invoeringswet WHBO*** (Implementation Act *WHBO*)	Regulated practical aspects of the *WHBO*. Higher professional institutions became hogescholen.	Structure of *HBO* sector; management and control; financing.
1986b	***Invoeringswet WWO*** (Implementation Act *WWO*)	Amendments to the 1985 *WWO* aimed at increasing the effectiveness of university planning, financing and administration.	Development planning; financing; management and control.
1986c	***Wet op de studiefinanciering*** (Student Finance Act)	Introduction of a universal basic grant system with the possibility of awarding supplementary grants to students from lower income families as well as interest-bearing loans. Duration of support limited to 6 years maximum.	Financial aid to students.
1987	***Hoger Onderwijs Onderzoek Plan - HOOP*** (First Higher Education and Research Plan - *HOOP*)	A two-year planning cycle came into effect. In the first year the Government issues a so-called draft Higher Education and Research Plan (*HOOP*), presenting the Government's ideas and perspectives on the development of higher education over the subsequent four years. During the second year of the cycle, the institutions respond to this draft with their own institutional development plans. The views of other groups concerned (e.g. employers) are also taken into consideration. The *HOOP* also includes an estimate of the financing required to cover the institutions' activities during next four years.	Management and control; development planning.
1988	***Stimuleringsprogramma Internationalisering - STIR*** (Internationalisation Incentive Programme)	A programme running from 1988 till 1997 and mainly intended to promote an international orientation among students, to encourage institutions to introduce an international dimension into their courses, to encourage studying and placements abroad and to develop facilities to host foreign students.	Internationalisation.
1991	***Nota 'Grenzen verleggen: Internationalisering van het onderwijs'*** (Memorandum *Pushing Back the Borders: the Internationalisation of Education*)	Promotion of the internationalisation of education in general and of relations with neighbouring countries in particular.	Internationalisation.

NETHERLANDS (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1992	***Wet op het hoger onderwijs en wetenschappelijk onderzoek WHW*** (Higher Education and Scientific Research Act) *came into force in 1993*	The act replaced a large number of laws and regulations by creating a single legal framework for higher professional education, university education and higher education through distance learning. It recognised university education and higher professional education as two similar but distinct types of education. It stipulated that courses must be defined either as university education or higher professional education. Already then many of the regulations were identical for the universities and higher professional institutions, but have since been even further harmonised.	Management, finance and control; course planning; structure and content; financial aid to students; quality control; teaching and assessment.
1996	***Wet kwaliteit en studeerbaarheid*** (Act on the quality and feasibility of study)	Aimed to improve course completion rates and reduce wastage. Introduced a fund of 500 million guilders for improving education in a way that would allow students to complete their studies within the standard period of study. Introduced guidelines for the self-evaluation of institutions.	Wastage; quality control.
1997	***Wet modernisering universitaire bestuursorganisatie - MUB*** (Act on the modernisation of university governance)	Student and staff organisations lose their positions on the governing bodies. The administration of higher education institutions is placed in the hands of an Administrative Board (responsible for day-to-day management) which is appointed by and accountable to a Supervisory Board, whose members are appointed and dismissed by the Minister of Education. The Supervisory Board includes members of the business community.	Management and control; internationalisation.

AUSTRIA

Context

1965-1995: expansion of higher education in terms of both the number of students (quadrupled since 1970) and of courses (with a 60% increase in courses over the 30-year period, especially in social and economic sciences). Enormous growth in university enrolment. The system of joint management and decision-making involving universities and government ministries became increasingly inefficient and cumbersome. Family contribution is a key element in financial support to students. Change to coalition government in 1990 precipitated reform phase. Until the mid-1990s, uniformity of provision with virtually no non-university vocational higher education. European Union membership in 1995. Budgetary cutbacks in 1997 to control growth in higher education expenditure.

Summary of Reforms

Increase in university autonomy and independence from government. Increase in monitoring and evaluation of higher education institutions. Establishment of *Fachhochschulen* (*FHS*) offering vocational higher education courses. *FHS* represented the introduction for the first time of mixed public and private sector financing with no direct state control over curricular development. Student financial assistance remains narrowly targeted; eligibility is extended to *FHS* students and for studies abroad. Increase in percentage of direct aid (grants, subsidised accommodation and meals) in total student assistance: 18% direct aid in 1990, 44% in 1997, an increase partly due to a reduction in levels of family allowances and in free transport.

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1966	***Bundesgesetz über die Studien an den wissenschaftlichen Hochschulen - AHStG*** (General Studies Act for Higher Education)	A new legal framework for universities which gave rise to a complex set of legal instruments and decrees enacted to regulate different aspects of higher education and aimed to standardise the organisation of teaching and examinations.	Teaching and course content.
1970	***Bundesgesetz über die Organisation der Kunsthochschulen - KHOG*** (Universities of Art and Music Organisation Act)	Restructuring and upgrading of art education.	Management and organisation; recruitment of personnel, location of institutions.
1975	***Bundesgesetz über die Organisation der Universitäten - UOG*** (University Oganisation Act)	Introduction of participatory management: involvement of university teaching staff, students and administrative personnel in university decision-making and reorganisation.	Management and control.
1983	***Bundesgesetz über die Studien an Hochschulen künstlerischer Richtung - KHstG*** (Studies Act for universities of Art and Music)	Harmonisation of the legal framework concerning studies at universities (*AHStG*) and universities of art and music.	Teaching and course content.
1988	***Bundesgesetz über die Akademie der bildenden Künste in Wien - AOG*** (Academy of Fine Art Organisation Act)	Restructuring of art education at the Academy of Fine Art in Vienna.	Management and organisation; recruitment of personnel; location of institutions.
1992	***Studienförderungsgesetz - StudFG*** (Study Support Act)	Reform of the 1963 Act. Eligibility for grants increased slightly by lowering the expected level of parental support. Grants now intended to cover the full cost of living. Grants eligibility extended to *Fachhochschule* students and to those involved in recognised studies abroad.	Student financial assistance.

AUSTRIA (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1993	***Bundesgesetz über die Organisation der Universitäten - UOG*** (University Organisation Act)	Substantial decentralisation of decision-making to universities. Supervision and funding by Federal Government retained. A National University Board was set up to advise the Federal Ministry responsible on the introduction of new study courses, overall university development plans, finance, evaluation of teaching and research. University advisory boards were established to advise the rector and the university senate on development planning, personnel, internal evaluation of teaching and research, and links between universities and industry/society. The act led to more university autonomy in relation to staff recruitment (including professors), management, internal organisation, application for and allocation of task-oriented budgets and detailed course content (with the support of curricular committees). Introduction of a system for performance assessment of teaching and research. Phased implementation.	Management and control; financing of institution; quality control and evaluation.
1993a	***Bundesgesetz über Fachhochschul-Studiengänge - FHStG*** (Federal Act on *Fachhochschule* Programmes)	Framework regulations relating to the recognition of *Fachhochschule* programmes. These are academically-based vocational higher education courses with compulsory work placements leading to an academic degree. Initial course funding is determined by points awarded in relation to a set of fixed criteria. Continued course recognition depends on ongoing monitoring of costs, courses, students and teaching staff, as well as results.	Course structure.
1994	***Bundesgesetz über die Errichtung des Universitätszentrums für Weiterbildung mit der Bezeichnung Donau-Universität Krems*** (Danube University Krems Act)	Federal act establishing the publicly-funded University Centre for Further Education otherwise known as the Danube University Krems.	Higher education structure.
1997	***Bundesgesetz über die Studien an den Universitäten - UniStG*** (University Studies Act)	Reform of the 1966 *AHStG*. A framework act which further strengthened university autonomy. It replaced a complex set of higher education study laws by a set of flexible legal instruments aimed at making training more labour-market oriented. Definition of educational tasks of universities. Attempt to reduce the dropout rate through the introduction of preparatory courses, and to lessen the length of courses. Involvement of employers in curricular committees whose tasks include organising course content and examinations, monitoring and evaluating study programmes and teaching, facilitating international mobility and the use of distance learning techniques for individual courses.	Wastage; management and control; monitoring and evaluation; course content and planning; internationalisation; teaching and assessment.

AUSTRIA (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1998	***Bundesgesetz über die Organisation der Universitäten der Künste - KUOG*** (Universities of Art and Music Organisation Act)	Substantial decentralisation of decision-making to universities. Supervision and funding by Federal Government retained. Activities of the National University Board were extended to the universities of art and music. Creation of university advisory boards. The act led to more university autonomy in relation to staff recruitment (including professors), management, internal organisation, application for and allocation of task-oriented budgets and detailed course content (with the support of curricular committees). Introduction of a system for performance assessment of teaching and research.	Management and control; financing of institutions; quality control and evaluation.

PORTUGAL

Context

Major changes after the 1974 revalution with the adoption of a democratic Constitution in 1976. The limited institutional capacity was unable to meet the sharp increase in demand for higher education which led to the introduction of national *numerus clausus* in 1976. Efforts to increase the provision of higher education by establishing new public universities, polytechnics and privately-funded institutions. In 1986, accession to the European Community. The need for higher-level vocational training led to the creation of the polytechnic system in 1979/80.

Summary of Reforms

Development of vocational higher education at polytechnic institutions. Growth of private and cooperative sector due to insufficient public provision. Increased autonomy for higher education institutions. Numerous small changes in the admissions system introduced by governments trying to respect the right to higher education of all those having successfully completed secondary education. Increase in tuition fees and reform of the student support system.

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1979	***Decreto-Lei n° 448/79, de 13 de Novembro*** (Decree-Law 448/79)	Legal basis for university academic personnel.	University staff careers.
1980	***Lei 19/80, de 16 de Julho*** (Law 19/80)		
1979a	***Decreto-Lei n° 513-T/79, de 26 de Deciembre*** (Decree-Law 513-T/79)	Creation of polytechnic institutions providing non-university vocational higher education.	Structure of vocational higher education.
1980a	***Decreto-Lei n° 303/80, de 1 de Agosto*** (Decree-Law 303/80)		
1981	***Decreto-Lei n° 185/81, de 1 de Julho*** (Decree-Law 185/81)	Legal basis for the academic personnel in polytechnic institutions.	Polytechnic staff careers.
1986	***Lei de bases do sistema educativo, n°46/86, de 14 de Outubro - LBSE*** (Education Framework Act 46/86)	Confirmed the binary organisation of higher education with the more autonomous universities on the one hand and the polytechnic institutions on the other. Introduced *bacharel* and *DESE* (*diploma de estudos superiores especializados* equivalent to university *licenciado* degree) to be awarded by polytechnic higher education institutions.	Course planning; structure and content; management and control; access and wastage; quality control.
1988	***Lei n° 108/88, de 24 de Setembro*** (Law 108/88)	Gave universities more executive autonomy over their internal organisation, creation and running of courses, research, internal staffing and administration of premises.	Management and control; course planning (universities).
1989	***Decreto-Lei n° 271/89, de 19 de Agosto*** (Decree-Law 271/89)	Legal basis for private and cooperative higher education. Established the requirements for the recognition of institutions and for course approval.	Organisation of private and cooperative higher education.

PORTUGAL (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1990	***Lei n° 54/90, de 5 de Setembro*** (Law 54/90)	Gave more autonomy to polytechnic institutions. Courses still have to be approved by the Ministry of Education.	Management and control (polytechnic institutions).
1992	***Lei n° 20/92, de 14 de Agosto*** (Law 20/92)	Introduced a sharp increase in tuition fees. The intention was to further increase fees until they would cover half of the educational costs per student. Following strong opposition from students, the new Government suspended the law in 1995.	Financing of higher education.
1993	***Decreto-Lei n° 129/93, de 22 de Abril*** (Decree-Law 129/93)	Creation of social support services at the public higher education institutions and of the National Council for Social Action in Higher Education.	Student support.
1994	***Estatuto do Ensino Superior Particular e Cooperativo, Decreto-Lei n° 16/94, de 22 de Janeiro and Lei n° 37/94 de 11 de Novembro)*** (Decree-Law 16/94 and Law 37/94)	Established the requirements for the recognition of private and cooperative higher education institutions and the approval of courses.	Organisation of private and cooperative higher education.
1994a	***Lei n° 38/94, de 21 de Novembro*** (Law 38/94)	Established the basis for the quality assessment of higher education programmes.	Quality evaluation.
1997	***Lei que define as bases do financiamento do ensino superior público, n° 113/97, de 16 de Setembro*** (Framework Act on Higher Education Finance 113/97)	Introduced funding of institutions via contracts: development contracts (longer term) and programme contracts (shorter term). Fixed the level of tuition fees to be paid by students. Created a student support fund responsible for developing new forms of support and extending these to students at non-public institutions. Institutions were given the right to set their own selection criteria for the admission of students.	Financing of institutions; student support; access to higher education.
1997a	***Lei que revê as bases do sistema educativo, n° 115/97, de 19 de Setembro*** (Education Framework Act 115/97)	*DESE* was abolished, both universities and polytechnic institutions now award *bacharel* (2 to 3 years) and *licenciado* (4+ years) degrees. All teacher training leads to the *licenciado* degree.	Degree structure; teacher training course structure.
1997b	***Decreto-Lei n° 252/97, de 26 de Setembro*** (Decree-Law 252/97)	Increased autonomy of universities with regard to staffing and university buildings.	Management and control.
1998	***Decreto-Lei n° 296-A, de 25 de Setembro*** (Decree-Law 296-A)	Established requirements and procedures for access to higher education.	Access to all institutions of higher education.
1998a	***Decreto-Lei n° 205/98, de 11 de Julho*** (Decree-Law 205/98)	Creation of the National Council for Assessment.	Quality assessment of higher education institutions.

FINLAND

Context

Rapid expansion of the provision of higher education during the 1960s and 1970s, which till then had been concentrated in the southern part of Finland. Several specialised institutions of business and technology were established in response to the demands of a rapidly growing economy. The aim was to increase the number of students in higher education and to ensure geographically balanced development of the country. Economic crisis and high unemployment in the early 1990s.

Summary of Reforms:

Apart from legislation-based reform, steering of universities has, since 1992, been based on consultations between the Ministry of Education and the universities. In 1991, the *ammattikorkeakoulu* system (polytechnics) was introduced on an experimental basis for the provision of vocational higher education. In 1995 the scheme was extended to all vocational higher education and each institution is carefully assessed before being granted a permanent licence. Major reform in the financing of institutions during the 1990s with the introduction of objective-based funding systems. Reform of the student financial aid system.

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1966	***Laki korkeakoululaitoksen kehittämisestä vuosina 1967-1981 (228/1966)*** (Higher Education Development Act for the period 1967-1981) *originally in force till 1981, later extended to 1986*	Intended to counteract the disproportionate increase in the provision of university education in social sciences and classical studies. Promotion of studies in technology and natural sciences as well as research to cater for the demands of the labour market. Paved the way for regionally balanced development of higher education.	Structure of higher education; vocational higher education; research
1986	***Laki korkeakoululaitoksen kehittämisestä (1052/1986)*** (Higher Education Development Act) *came into force in 1987*	Guaranteed the supply of necessary resources for the development of universities until the mid-1990s and prepared the ground for institutional reform. The act applied a completely new approach in relation to the management of higher education institutions. The main goals were the gradual introduction of management by objectives and of an assessment system providing information on the results and cost of teaching and research, as well as on the demand for more efficient undergraduate and postgraduate education. By the beginning of 1994, all universities had adopted 'budgeting by results', replacing itemised appropriations by appropriations linked to objectives and actual performance. Funding is split into two categories, operational expenditure and investment, and universities are free to decide on how to use the funds allocated to them. The act led to an increase in funding for higher education institutions.	Management and control; financing; quality assessment
1991	***Asetus opetusministeriön hallinnonalan koulutuksen ja korkeakouluissa harjoitettavan tutkimuksen kehittämissuunnitelmasta (165/1991)*** (Decree on the Government Development Plan for Education and University Research)	The decree aimed to achieve high quality in education and research, internationalisation, increased efficiency and the delegation of more decision-making powers from the Government to the institutions themselves. University administration was streamlined by reducing the number of levels in decision-making and by delegating authority. In the universities' central administration the decision-making authority lies with the rectors, at lower levels with deans and heads of units. Introduction of a national evaluation process covering both programmes and institutions.	Management and control; quality evaluation; internationalisation

FINLAND (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1991a	***Laki nuorisoasteen koulutuksen ja ammattikorkeakoulujen kokeiluista (391/1991)*** (Act on experimental polytechnics)	Creation of a non-university higher education sector parallel to the universities. Upgrading of vocational education to higher education in the form of experimental polytechnics (institutions of vocational higher education).	Structure of higher education.
1991b	***Laki ammatillisista oppilaitoksista (146/1991) (muutos)*** (Act on vocational education institutions)	General eligibility for access to universities and polytechnics was extended to students with post-secondary level vocational qualifications.	Access to higher education.
1992	***Laki korkeakouluopiskelijoiden opintotuesta (111/1992)*** (Act on financial aid for higher education students)	A profound reform was introduced to the student financial aid system. Until then, banks had applied a government-fixed rate on state-guaranteed student loans. In the radically changed economic environment of the 1990s, banks started to charge interest at the market rate.	Student financial support.
1993	Revision of the 1991 Government Development Plan	Intended to reduce the dramatically increased unemployment rate by reforming degree structure and course contents of higher education to better meet the demands of the labour market. Promotion of research and development with a view to strengthening the national innovation structure. Much emphasis was placed on international cooperation.	Course planning and content; research; internationalisation.
1994	***Opintotukilaki (65/1994)*** ***Opintotukiasetus (260/1994)*** (Act and Decree on student financial aid)	The financial aid scheme had two elements: the grant and the repayable loan. The basic idea of the amendments was to increase the proportion of the grant in relation to the loan. Support for a Master's degree course was limited to a 55-month period.	Student financial support.
1995	***Laki ammattikorkeakouluopinnoista (255/1995)*** (Act on permanent polytechnics)	Following the very positive experience with polytechnics, the first nine experimental polytechnics were established as permanent institutions.	Structure of non-university higher education.
1995a	***Koulutuksen ja korkeakouluissa harjoitettavan tutkimuksen kehittämissuunnitelma 1995-2000*** (Development Plan for Education and University Research 1995-2000 Government Decision)	The plan comprised ten priority areas: lifelong learning; labour market orientation; internationalisation; language teaching; implementation of the national information strategy for research and education; sustainable development; improvement of mathematics and science skills; emphasis on the cultural mission of the universities; establishment of centres of excellence and strengthening of the role of quality evaluation.	Access to higher education; course structure; internationalisation; quality evaluation.

FINLAND (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1996	***Asetus korkeakoulujen arviointineuvostosta (1320/1995)*** (Decree to establish the Finnish Council for Higher Education Evaluation)	A Finnish Council for Higher Education Evaluation was established at the beginning of 1996 replacing the Higher Education Council as the advisory body to the Ministry of Education. The main task of the newly established Council is to assist universities and polytechnics in the self-evaluation process and to promote evaluation in Finland in general. The Council is also responsible for the evaluation of polytechnics seeking an operating licence.	Quality evaluation.
1996a	Joint proposal on the financing of universities by the Ministry of Education and the Universities' Working Group	Since 1988, a certain proportion of the appropriations for universities had been allocated on the basis of performance with different indicators used over the years. The new proposal introduced a major change in the financing of universities whereby basic funding is based on an agreed target number of Master's and doctoral degree course students. The phased implementation of the new formula-based budgeting system is expected to be completed by 2003.	Financing of institutions.
1997	***Yliopistolaki (645/1997)*** (Act on Universities) *came into force in 1998*	Replaced the separate acts and decrees stipulating the mission of each university, its administrative system, curriculum, languages of instruction, research activities, etc. with a loose legislative framework leaving room for each university to decide on its administration.	Management and control.

SWEDEN

Context

Unified post-secondary education system. Links between study programmes offered and the labour market. Strong element of national planning and regulation in 1980. Restrictions on public spending in early 1990s.

Summary of Reforms

Moves towards greater institutional autonomy and deregulation, especially in course planning and staffing. Quality evaluation programme introduced. Continuing international emphasis.

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1977	***Högskolelagen (1977:218)*** (Higher Education Act) ***Högskoleförordningen (1977:263)*** (Higher Education Ordinance)	Incorporated all post-secondary education into the same system, the *hogskola*, under the Ministry of Education and Science. Distinction between universities (with permanent research funding) and university colleges remained. Central planning of national course offer. Students were given the right to be represented in the undergraduate studies programme committees and in the faculty boards.	Structure of higher education; management and control; internationalisation.
1985	***SFS 1985:601*** (Amendment to Higher Education Ordinance 1977)	Extended the right to receive credit for studies abroad.	Internationalisation
1985a	***SFS 1985:702*** (Amendment to Higher Education Ordinance 1977) *came into force in 1986*	Introduction of a simplified system for teaching posts within higher education. All teachers now have to fulfil the tasks of teaching, research and administration.	Staffing
1987	***SFS 1987:992*** (Amendment to the Higher Education Act 1977) *came into force in 1988*	Regional boards abolished (move towards more institutional emphasis in management with participation of social partners and local authorities transferred to institutional board).	Management and control
1988	***SFS 1988:877*** (Amendment to the Study Assistance Act 1973) ***SFS 1988:1381*** (Amendment to the Study Assistance Ordinance 1973) *both came into force in 1989*	Reform of student aid system. Grants, as a proportion of total aid, were increased. Annual loan repayments were limited to 4% of borrower's income. Measures aimed to reduce indebtedness of graduates.	Student financial aid
1992	***'Fria universitet och högskolor' (Utbildningsdepartementet Ds 1992:1)*** (Memorandum *The Independence of Universities and University Colleges*)	Discussion of measures to increase institutional autonomy in a proposed Higher Education Act.	Management and control

SWEDEN (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1992a	***SFS 1992:397*** (Ordinance containing directives for the National Agency for Higher Education - *Verket för högskoleservice*) ***SFS 1992:814*** (Ordinance containing directives for the Office of the University Chancellor - *Kanslersämbetet*)	The National Swedish Board of Universities and Colleges (*UHA*) was abolished. Quality assurance becomes a task for the Office of the University Chancellor.	Management (decentralisation), quality assurance.
1992b	***Högskolelagen 1992:1434*** (Higher Education Act) ***Högskoleförordningen 1993:100*** (Higher Education Ordinance) *came into force in 1993*	Increased independence for universities and university colleges. Financing of universities and colleges on the basis of performance. The ordinance defines the right of students to be represented on university councils dealing with education. Counselling and careers guidance for students strengthened. Course planning transferred to institutional level.	Access and wastage, course planning (at institutional level); staffing (institutions can establish professorships); management; financing of institutions.
1995	***SFS 1995:943*** (Ordinance containing directives for the National Agency for Higher Education) ***SFS 1995:945*** (Ordinance containing directives for the National Admissions Office to Higher Education)	A new National Agency for Higher Education, *Högskoleverket* formerly called *Verket för högskoleservice*, was established and made responsible for quality issues amongst other things. The responsibility for admissions was transferred to the new National Admissions Office to Higher Education now called *Verket för högskoleservice*.	Quality evaluation, access to higher education (simplification).
1996	***SFS 1996:984*** (Amendment to the Higher Education Ordinance 1993)	Clearer and more uniform national rules for eligibility, selection and admission to universities and university colleges.	Access to higher education.
1996a	***SFS 1996:1392*** (Amendment to the Higher Education Act 1992)	Cooperation and interaction with society defined as a third task of universities and university colleges besides teaching and research.	Structure of higher education; management.
1997	***SFS 1997:797*** (Amendment to the Higher Education Act 1992)	Reorganisation of management of higher education institutions and increase in the number of professors. Requirement for an independent chair of the governing board.	Management and control; staffing.

UNITED KINGDOM (ENGLAND, WALES AND NORTHERN IRELAND)

Context

Expansion of university sector in 1960s following the Robbins Report (1963). Increase in demand for higher education. Establishment of polytechnics under LEAs during 1970s.

Summary of Reforms

Strong increase in full-time student numbers while funding per student fell; ceiling imposed in 1994. Polytechnics removed from local education authority control in 1988 then gained university status following 1992 Further and Higher Education Act. Strict limits imposed on public spending and increased government steering, via Funding Councils, of funding of higher education institutions. The 1997 Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education (Dearing Report) set the agenda for the future development of higher education.

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1981	**The Government's Expenditure Plans 1981-82 to 1983-84 (Cm. 8175).** (White Paper)	Plans to reduce expenditure in Further and Higher Education by 8% over the next 3 years. Heralded change in policy and reshaping of higher education under conditions of severe resource restraint.	Financing of institutions.
1987	**Higher Education: Meeting the Challenge (Cm. 114).** (White Paper)	Change in policy: commitment to increase participation rates and widen access to higher education for mature entrants and those without conventional A-level qualifications. Need for further efficiency gains.	Access to higher education; financing of institutions.
1988 1989	**Education Reform Act** **Education Reform (Northern Ireland) Order**	Applied to all levels of education. Establishment of the Universities Funding Council (UFC) and the Polytechnics and Colleges Funding Council (PCFC) to assume funding responsibilities for universities and for polytechnics and higher education colleges in England respectively.	Financing of institutions; management and control.
1990	**Education (Student Loans) Act** **Education (Student Loans) (Northern Ireland) Order**	Introduced loans as part of a student aid package comprising a means-tested grant, a loan and the payment of fees.	Student financial aid.
1991	***Higher Education: A New Framework (Cm. 1541).*** (White Paper)	Proposed abolition of the 'binary system' between university and non-university institutions and the establishment of a unitary system of higher education.	Higher education structure; financing of institutions; quality control and evaluation.
1992	**Further and Higher Education Act**	Introduction of fundamental changes to the structure of further education. Abolition of the binary system allowing all higher education institutions to include 'university' in their title, subject to fulfilling certain criteria. Establishment of the Higher Education Funding Councils in England and Wales responsible for funding and quality control assessment. Funding of higher education institutions in Northern Ireland continued to be the responsibility of the Department of Education Northern Ireland (DENI).	Structure of higher education; management and control; financing of institutions; quality control and evaluation.

UNITED KINGDOM (ENGLAND, WALES AND NORTHERN IRELAND) (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1997	**Report of the National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education in the UK** (Dearing Report)	Most comprehensive review of the higher education sector since the 1963 Robbins Report. Recommendations covered institutional funding, student finance, teacher training, quality assurance, research, use of information and communications technology and the relationship between higher education and industry and commerce.	Financing of institutions; quality control and evaluation; student finance; course planning; structure and content; teaching.
1998	**Teaching and Higher Education Act** **Education (Student Support) (Northern Ireland) Order**	Introduction of changes to the financial support arrangements for students.	Financing of institutions; financial aid to students.

UNITED KINGDOM (SCOTLAND)

Context

Higher participation in higher education than in rest of the United Kingdom and showing a steady increase. Many higher education courses are offered in further education institutions.

Summary of Reforms

Mainly from the early 1990s onwards: expansion of higher education by the establishment of new universities; increased access for women, mature-age entrants and those from less academic backgrounds; changes to funding of higher education institutions; quality assurance and student financing.

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1988	**Central Institutions (Scotland) Regulations**	Increased the autonomy of directly-funded central institutions (non-university institutions) by establishing a governing body in which ministers had no direct role.	Management and control.
1990	**Education (Student Loans) Act**	Introduced loans as part of student aid package comprising a means-tested grant, a loan and the payment of fees.	Student financial aid.
1992	**Further and Higher Education (Scotland) Act**	Introduced fundamental changes to the organisation of post-school education. Establishment of the Scottish Higher Education Funding Council (SHEFC) responsible for funding and quality assessment of Scottish higher education institutions, separately from those of the rest of the UK. Removed the divide between universities and central institutions (now higher education institutions) leading to the creation of 5 new universities from among these.	Management and control; financing of institutions; quality control and evaluation.
1997	**Report of the National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education in the UK** (Dearing Report) **Report of the Scottish Committee of the National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education** (Garrick Report)	Most comprehensive review of the sector since the 1963 Robbins Report. Recommendations covered institutional funding, student finance, teacher training, quality assurance, research, use of information and communications technology and the relationship between higher education and industry and commerce.	Financing of institutions; quality control and evaluation; student finance; course planning; structure and content; teaching.
1998	**Teaching and Higher Education Act**	Introduction of changes to the financial support arrangements for students.	Financial aid to students.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

ICELAND

Context

Small, homogeneous, unitary higher education system. Until 1971, the only university was the university of Iceland. Steadily increasing demand for higher education, especially from women. Restrictions imposed on public financing during early 1990s. Highly internationalised higher education system.

Summary of Reforms

Some reforms were not a result of specific legislation. Upgrading of specialist training colleges to higher education level. Establishment and rationalisation of new higher education institutions to increase their status and efficiency. Increase in the number of postgraduate programmes (no specific legislation). Establishment of private institutions encouraged. Student financial support linked to study progress and students' financial contributions increased by charging interest on loans.

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1988	***Lög um Háskólann á Akureyri no. 18, 5.5.1988*** (Law to establish the University of Akureyri)	The law aimed at strengthening higher education outside Reykjavik. Emphasis is put on shorter courses relevant to the local economy.	Access to higher education; geographical spread of higher education institutions; course structure.
1992	***Lög um Lánasjóô islenskra námsmanna no. 21, 25.5.1992*** (Law on the Icelandic Government Student Loan Fund)	In order to be eligible for a loan, students now had to provide proof of examinations passed. The financial conditions were tightened by increasing the proportion of income earmarked for repayment and by charging interest on the indexed capital.	Financial aid to students.
1995	***Lög um listmenntun á háskólastigi no. 43, 7.3.1995*** (Law on art education at higher education level)	Proposed to merge three colleges of art (of which one was privately-run) on a trial basis to form a new art academy run by a private organisation offering higher education courses. The planned new institution has so far not been established.	Structure of non-university higher education.
1997	***Lög um Kennaraháskóla Íslands no. 137, 18.12.1997*** (Law on the University College of Education)	Merging and upgrading of four teacher-training colleges, some at upper secondary level, to form a new University College of Education.	Upgrading and restructuring of non-university higher education.
1997a	***Lög um háskóla no. 136, 23.12.1998*** (Higher Education Framework Law)	Set out a framework for the operation of higher education institutions. Gave them greater financial independence but made them more accountable and changed the composition of the university governing council. Establishment of rules for the public funding of private institutions. Two-year implementation period.	Management and control; financing of institutions; access and wastage; quality evaluation.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

LIECHTENSTEIN

Context

The tertiary education sector is a relatively recent development. The existing institutions of tertiary education offer a very limited amount of study courses and cannot even begin to cover the demand. Therefore most Liechtenstein students study abroad.

Summary of Reforms

The Law on *Fachhochschulen*, Higher Education and Research Institutions from 1992 introduced autonomous institutions of tertiary education.

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1972	***Gesetz über staatliche Ausbildungsbeihilfen (33/1972)*** (Law on government financial aid to students) *Several amendments passed between 1974 and 1992*	Grants, loans and contributions towards study costs especially for studies abroad.	Student financial aid.
1992	***Gesetz über die Fachhochschulen, Hochschul- und Forschungsinstitute (106/1992)*** (Law on *Fachhochschulen*, higher education and research institutions)	Framework law consisting of 15 articles containing regulations governing the said institutions.	Establishment of higher education institutions.
1997	***Gesetz zur Änderung des Gesetzes über die Fachhochschulen, Hochschul- und Forschungsinstitute (133/1997)*** (Amendment to the Law on *Fachhochschulen*, higher education and research institutions)	Recognition of the *Fachhochschule* Liechtenstein as a *Fachhochschule* with the legal status of a foundation under public law. Further development of higher education.	Management and control.

NORWAY

Context

The 1960s and 1970s saw a considerable expansion of higher education, with increased student enrolment and the creation of regional colleges, a new kind of degree-awarding institution, with new types of study programmes in new subject areas as well as multidisciplinary programmes. Regional colleges were geographically spread across the entire country, due to a general concern for local development. The economic growth since the beginning of the 1980s, mainly due to the exploitation of oil and gas, suffered an important setback at the end of the 1980s, marked by a banking crisis and some years of higher unemployment rates. After 1993, the Norwegian economy again experienced a strong cyclical expansion. During the 1990s, despite overall nominal growth, the higher education sector was challenged, both quantitatively and qualitatively, by relative cuts in funding.

Summary of Reforms

State policy of taking over vocational post-secondary schools from counties and municipalities, notably in nursing and engineering, and of upgrading them, resulting in a vast number of higher education institutions. The term 'Network Norway' was coined to denote a national higher education and research network based on the principles of specialisation, cooperation and communication. In 1994, the former regional and vocational colleges were reorganised and merged to create larger state colleges. In 1995, a new law on higher education was passed, and in 1996, seven colleges and academies of arts, crafts and design were merged into two new institutions.

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1970	***Lov om eksamener og grader ved universiteter og høgskole, 58, 1970*** (Act on examinations and degrees)	A first step towards a more integrated system of higher education in that it introduced common legislation for the regulation of examinations and degrees at the universities and the university colleges.	Course structure.
1981	***Kongelig resolusjon*** (Royal Decree)	The 1970 Act was extended to the regional colleges and the colleges of engineering, teacher education, social work, journalism and library studies. This extension meant that the institutions concerned became degree-awarding higher education institutions, and that completed study programmes, examinations and degrees from these institutions were legally recognised and approved by all other institutions.	Course structure; upgrading of non-university institutions.
1985	***Lov 21/1985 om utdanninsstøtte til elever og studenter*** (Act on financial support for pupils and students)	Regulated grants and loans to students.	Financial aid to students.
1986	***Lov 53/1986 om private høgskoler*** (Act on private higher education)	The recognition of study programmes and the state funding of private higher education institutions.	Private non-university higher education.
1987	***Med viten og vilje (NOU 1988:28)*** (Royal Commission Report on higher education Green Paper)	Review of the higher education sector. The report was used as the basis for the 1989 Royal Decree.	Course structure; course planning; teaching and assessment.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

NORWAY (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1989	***Kongelig resolusjon*** (Royal Decree)	The 1970 Act was extended to the arts, crafts and design colleges.	Course structure: upgrading of non-university institutions; teaching and assessment
1989a	***Lov om universiteter og vitenskapelige høgskoler*** (Universities and University Colleges Act/University Act) *came into force in 1990*	The act applied only to universities and university colleges. It replaced the 1970 Act on examinations and degrees. In addition to simplifying the legislation, the act implied delegation of powers to and increased self-governance of the institutions to which it applied, in that the institutions were given the right to appoint all staff.	Course structure; management and control
1990	***Kongelig resolusjon*** (Royal Decree)	Chapter 11 on degrees and examinations of the University Act was extended to all colleges covered by the 1970 Act. Upgrading of non-university higher education institutions to degree-awarding institutions.	Course structure: upgrading of non-university higher education
1991	***Kongelig resolusjon*** (Royal Decree)	Chapter 11 of the University Act was extended to maritime colleges, colleges of music, the college of hotel management, and to colleges of nursing and of other health-related/paramedical professions.	Course structure: upgrading of non-university higher education
1991a	***St. meld. nr. 40 (1990-91) Fra visjon til virke. Om høgre utdanning*** (White Paper on higher education)	The White Paper suggested reorganising and merging higher education institutions. The term 'Network Norway' was coined to denote a national higher education and research network based on the principle of specialisation.	Structure of higher education
1992	***Lov om universiteter og høgskoler: Om lov og rett I Norgesnett (NOU 1993:24)*** (Royal Commission Report on legislation in higher education - Green Paper)	Green Paper serving as a draft for a new act covering the whole of the public higher education sector.	All areas of public higher education
1993	***Kongelig resolusjon*** (Royal Decree)	The reorganisation of the non-university sector by merging 98 regional and vocational colleges into 26 state colleges.	Structure of non-university sector

NORWAY (continued)

Year	Legislation / policy documents	Main provisions	Aspects affected
1995	***Lov om universiteter og høgskoler*** (Universities and Colleges Act) *came into force in 1996*	This act replaced the 1989 Act on universities and university colleges and gave higher education institutions a considerable degree of academic and administrative autonomy, while leaving decisions on overall organisation to the Ministry. This legislation extended to the non-university higher education institutions which from then on enjoyed the same degree of autonomy. The recognition of professional and educational programmes and of degrees was regulated by a series of royal decrees.	Management and control, unified system for university and non-university sectors.
1996	***Lov 54/1996 om studentsamskipnader*** (Act on the organisation of student welfare)	Organisation of student welfare (housing, canteens, sport facilities, etc.)	Financial aid to students.
1996a	***Kongelig resolusjon*** (Royal Decree)	A new set of regulations became applicable for the financial management of state funding, implying more specific and strict requirements concerning the management, reporting and control of funds for all state institutions, including those of higher education.	Financing of institutions.
1997	***O.t. prp. nr. 65 (1996-97) Om lov om endring av lov universiteter og høgskoler av 12. Mai 1995 nr. 22*** (Amendment to the 1995 Universities and Colleges Act)	Application of the 1995 Act to art colleges/academies.	Upgrading of art colleges to higher education level.

CHAPTER 2: MANAGEMENT, FINANCE AND CONTROL

This chapter discusses the management and control of higher education taken here as referring primarily to the division of regulatory and decision-making powers between the higher education institutions and government, though it also covers the internal management of higher education institutions and the involvement of outside bodies, such as representatives of business, the social partners and local or regional government in the planning of higher education. It is a key aspect of higher education which has changed enormously in many European countries since 1980.

As Chapter 1: Legislation for Change shows, the universality of reforms affecting the autonomy, financing and quality control of higher education is underlined by the fact that, in every country considered, as far as the general legal framework for higher education is concerned, at least one, and often many more pieces of legislation dealing with these areas were enacted during the period of the study[1]. In some countries, one major piece of legislation set the framework for the current higher education system, while other countries legislated for reform with a series of legal instruments dealing with different aspects or steps of the process. The reforms carried out since 1980 generally aimed at increasing the autonomy of the higher education institutions, particularly in the case of the universities, in relation to the planning and delivery of higher education. However, as will be shown below, the degree of autonomy given to higher education institutions in the academic year 1996/97 varied enormously between countries and between the university and non-university sectors. In the United Kingdom the reforms were generally intended to increase efficiency, quality and accountability (for the use of public funds) whilst maintaining an already high level of institutional autonomy.

In their conclusions to a study of the relationship between government and higher education in Europe, Neave and Van Vught (1991) suggested that institutional autonomy is not a monolithic, indivisible concept but that it has become divided into two separate spheres: control over the **process** of higher education, that is, the daily activity of institutions, teaching, the curriculum, etc.; and control over the **product**, the number, type and level of qualified students, publications, etc. They argued that the increased autonomy given to Western European higher education institutions during the 1980s related mainly to autonomy over the process and that this was counterbalanced by measures to keep government control over the product through quality control and assessment. Although financial autonomy is not specifically treated in this model, the distinction will be used to examine the different outcomes of reforms in the comparative analysis below.

For greater clarity, the general reforms in the management and control of higher education will initially be examined separately from the reforms in the financing of higher education institutions and in the processes of quality control and evaluation. It is, of course, recognised that the three areas are closely linked: changes in the methods of funding higher education institutions have made a key contribution to their autonomy by giving them more control over spending. Equally, more autonomy over spending has often gone hand in hand with the introduction of more systematic, externally-determined systems of administrative, financial and quality control which may, in some cases be linked to funding formulae. An examination of the legislation shows moreover, that in some countries, reforms in these areas were introduced in the form of broad framework acts that encompassed the entire domain of institutional autonomy, finance and quality control.

---

[1] See country tables in the Annex to Chapter 1: Legislation for Change which list the legislation and policy documents for each country in chronological order.

The chapter begins by discussing the responsibilities of higher education institutions in the different countries in 1997 and comparing these with the responsibilities of governments and other external bodies. It looks briefly at the composition and role of the different management organs within the higher education institutions. Finally, reforms relating to quality assessment and control in higher education since 1980 are examined.

Section 2.2. deals with the financing of institutions. It looks at the funding systems for public university and (where applicable) non-university institutions in 1997 and then discusses the reforms since 1980. Section 2.3. looks at the systems for quality assessment and control currently in place, the different actors involved and the outcomes of the evaluation process. The reforms in the system since 1980 are discussed.

The final section summarises the reforms and tries to link the changes in autonomy, financing and evaluation of higher education in order to look for common patterns and major divergences.

2.1. THE RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE MAIN ACTORS

2.1.1. THE STATE

In European countries the State is an important actor in public higher education in that it continues to provide the majority of funding. In Belgium and Spain, most state responsibility for higher education was transferred to the Communities or Autonomous Communities respectively during the period of the study. In the majority of countries, reforms since the 1980s have focused on the transformation of the role of the State from direct management of the universities through detailed legislation to provision of a broader legal framework for the system, together with supervision of its activities.

In most countries the role of the State in 1997 was to define and allocate the budget for higher education as well as providing a general legal framework for higher education, covering areas such as the planning of educational provision at national level, the creation of new institutions, the validation of qualifications and monitoring and evaluation of the system. In a number of countries (German *Länder*, Spain, France, Italy, Luxembourg, Austria and Portugal) the State had further responsibilities for employing staff, for defining course formats and examinations and/or for the admission of students. The French Community of Belgium can also be included in this group of countries, despite the fact that a system for the centralised evaluation of higher education, although foreseen by law, is not yet put in place.

In 1999, Luxembourg established a new Ministry of Culture, Higher Education and Research (*Ministère de la culture, de l'enseignement supérieur et de la recherche*) and thereby underlined the growing importance it attaches to higher education.

2.1.2. THE HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

In most countries, universities, regulated by the Ministry or Department of Higher Education, were more autonomous at the beginning of the study period in 1980 than non-university higher education institutions which frequently came under the Ministry of Education and, therefore, the legislation for schools. In many countries at this time, universities already had a high degree of autonomy over their teaching and research activities deriving from the basic principle of academic freedom. However, they often had much less control over the spending of their budget which was usually allocated strictly to a specific set of budget lines, over their internal management and administration, the creation and format of courses, the ownership of buildings and the employment and recruitment of staff who were, in many countries, civil servants.

In 1980, the internal management of universities in most countries was based on a democratic, collegiate model where academic staff, non-academic staff and students were elected to a hierarchy of councils at several levels ranging from programme level, through department and faculty level, to representation on the main governing councils. There were also elected individuals with responsibility for the internal organisation of the institution, ranging from the rector or vice-chancellor who was legally responsible for the activities of the institution, to the deans of faculties and heads of department. Sometimes, as in Greece (up to 1982) and France, the *de facto* power lay in the hands of a few powerful professors. The main focus of internal management was on the administration of teaching and research.

During the period of this study, except in the Netherlands and Sweden, there have apparently been only small changes in the structure of the governing bodies of university institutions. However, the function of the more senior bodies has changed significantly. These senior bodies have become considerably more powerful as more responsibilities have been devolved to institutions from central government. Table 2.1 shows that in most countries in 1997, they were no longer only responsible for the internal administration of the institution but also had to manage its budget, appoint and employ staff, look after buildings, organise and develop courses, carry out self-evaluation and negotiate and manage contracts with external organisations. Most importantly, in many countries they were responsible for planning the future development of their institution in line with general objectives laid down by the Government. This planning process was often closely linked to their future funding.

The response in some countries has been an attempt to clarify the relative responsibilities of the institutions and the Government through non-prescriptive framework legislation (Italy, Luxembourg, Austria, Finland, Sweden, Iceland and Norway). In many of these countries, layers of administration were reduced and responsibilities devolved where possible, to the lowest level.

Furthermore, as they have become more autonomous, institutions in most countries have been encouraged to become more market-oriented and to link their development more closely to the labour market and to the local economy. This increased awareness of their role and identity as organisations has mainly been economically driven, as they have had to look to external sources of funding. This has been reinforced in some countries, by legally-driven changes to their governance. An important reflection of this change is that in 1997, external or lay members were included in the more senior governing bodies of institutions in all the countries studied except Germany (although envisaged in some *Länder*) and Greece. Sweden has gone a particularly long way down the road towards externalisation and external members form the majority on the governing boards of higher education institutions. From 1998, the external influence will be increased as these boards must be chaired by an external member.

Many of these external members of governing bodies of higher education institutions were from commercial or industrial backgrounds and the aim was apparently to bring higher education closer to the world of work both in terms of its product and, in some countries, in terms of its management. Other members were from the local or regional government reflecting the fact that the regions acquired an increasingly important role in funding higher education, particularly the more vocationally-related courses, in a number of countries (Spain, France, Italy, Finland, Sweden). The state's partnership with privately or partly privately-run higher education institutions in Austria may also be seen as a step towards opening up higher education to external influences.

In some countries the move towards strengthening the management of institutions and encouraging an entrepreneurial culture strengthened the influence of certain groups in the management of institutions. In the Netherlands, the internal management structure of the public universities was reorganised in 1997 in order to limit the powers of the bodies on which students and staff are represented and a government-appointed supervisory board has been introduced into each institution to approve the decisions of the administrative board. In Denmark, the 1993 reforms to some extent reduced the power of students in the management of institutions.

In other countries, democracy has apparently increased during the period studied. Reforms during the early 1980s in Greece, France and Italy broadened the representation of students and lecturers on governing bodies in order to restrict the power of the individual professors. In Luxembourg, student representation on the governing body of the *Centre universitaire* (University Centre) was introduced in 1996.

In 1985, Germany passed an amendment to the Higher Education Framework Act providing a choice between a rectorship and a presidential constitution to govern higher education institutions. Professors were given the absolute majority of seats and votes on the body electing the governing body of the institution. The 1997 policy paper '*Hochschulen für das 21. Jahrhundert*' (*Higher Education Institutions for the 21st Century*) reviewed German higher education and established the basis for an amendment of the Higher Education Framework Act passed in 1998. On the whole, this amendment will lead to the deregulation of the organisation and administration of higher education institutions. Institutions will no longer be subject to detailed legal regulations at the federal level, as hitherto; the rights in relation to organisation in higher education are transferred back to the *Land* level.

Table 2.1 shows the main areas over which higher education institutions in the different countries had control in 1997 and the date when this was conferred through legislation. In most cases the change in law was the start of an often year-long process of implementing the desired reforms, while in some cases a new or amended law was the later legal recognition of an already changed situation. The table does not include research activities since the universities' autonomy over research has not changed significantly over the period under review in any country. Non-university institutions are only included, where specified, for the countries where they are treated in an equivalent way to universities. Full autonomy in the different areas, in the order presented in Table 2.1, is understood as meaning that the institutions are able to: freely spend any income derived from government grants, fees and contracts; decide on the employment of academic staff and their salaries (even if any legal requirements for minimum qualifications and minimum salaries have to be met); be responsible for internal management without the obligation to include specific external members on governing boards or similar bodies; own buildings and equipment used for teaching purposes; freely change course structure and content; determine when and how to assess the quality of their educational provision and, finally, determine any policy significantly affecting the institution's future development. The term 'limited' indicates that institutional autonomy is not complete but is determined by a framework of rules and conditions laid down by the government or any other authority.

Table 2.1: Degree of autonomy enjoyed by higher education institutions in 1996/97 and the year the relevant legislation came into force

	Higher education institution	Budget spending	Employment of teaching staff	Administration and internal regulations	Buildings and equipment	Course planning	Self-evaluation	Development planning
	European Union							
B fr	Universities	1998	1995	pre-1980	1991	1994	pre-1980	■
	Hautes écoles	1996	1996	1996	pre-1980	1995	pre-1980	■
B nl	Universities	1991	1991	1991	1991	1991	1991	1991
	Hogescholen	1994	1994	1994	1994	1994	1994	1994
DK	Universities	1993	pre-1980	1993	1993	pre-1980	1992	1993
D	Universities and *Fachhochschulen*	■	■	pre-1980	pre-1980	pre-1980	1990	pre-1980
EL	*AEIs* and *TEIs*	1997	1982	1982	pre-1980	1982	1997	1982
E	Universities	1983	1983	1983	1983	1983	1991	1983
F	Universities	pre-1980	■	1984	1989	pre-1980	1989	1984
IRL	Universities	pre-1980	pre-1980	pre-1980	pre-1980	pre-1980	pre-1980	pre-1980
I	Universities	1983	1998	1989	1993	1990	1993	■
L	University Centre	1997	1997	1997	1997	1997	1997	1997
NL	Universities	1986	pre-1980	1986-1997	1994	1993	1993	1986
	HBOs	1986	1986	1986	1994	1986	1993	1986
A	Universities	1993	1993	1993	■	1997	1993	■
	Fachhochschule programmes	1993	1993	1993	1993	1993	1993	■
P	Public universities	1988	1988	1988	1997	1989	1994	1997
FIN	Universities	1988-1994	pre-1980	1986	1988	pre-1980	pre-1980	1997
	Polytechnics	1991	1991	1991	1991	1991	1991	1991
S	Higher education institutions	pre-1980	pre-1980	pre-1980	pre-1980	pre-1980	pre-1980	pre-1980
UK	Universities established before 1992	pre-1980	pre-1980	pre-1980	pre-1980	pre-1980	pre-1980	pre-1980
	Higher education institutions with university status since 1992	1992	1992	1992	1992	1992	1992	1992
	EFTA/EEA							
IS	University	1990	1997	1997	■	1997	1997	1997
LI	*Fachhochschule Liechtenstein (FHL)*	1992	1992	1992	1992	1992	1992	1992
NO	Universities	1991	1990	1990	1991	1996	1991	pre-1980
	Non-university institutions	1991	1996	1996	1991	1996	1991	pre-1980

Source: Eurydice

FULL **LIMITED** ■ **NONE**

Belgium (B fr)	Administration and internal regulations: institutional autonomy in this area has been and still is very comprehensive, albeit not full.
	Self-evaluation: institutions enjoy autonomy over self-evaluation, but rules and regulations governing this area are currently being developed by the Community.
Germany	Budget spending: some *Länder* run pilot projects giving autonomy to institutions.
	Employment of teaching staff: institutions have autonomy to employ some junior staff.
	Buildings and equipment and course planning: shared responsibility between the *Land* and the higher education institutions concerned.
Greece	Employment of teaching staff: universities can employ professors only on one-year contracts and by using their own funds.
	Buildings and equipment: universities usually own their buildings and equipment.
	Development planning: decisions with regard to development planning must be approved by the Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs and financed mainly by the state budget.
Spain	Employment of teaching staff: institutions have autonomy in the employment of temporary staff only.

France	Development planning: in relation to contracts with the State only
Italy	Course planning: almost full autonomy was established in 1997 by a law due to be implemented in 1999/2000
The Netherlands	Administration and internal regulations: autonomy has been granted gradually since 1986 In 1997 supervisory boards were introduced Self-evaluation: although introduced in the 1980s, the legal basis was only established in 1993
Finland	Budget spending: the major reform on budget spending was possible without any legislative change. In 1988 the Ministry of Education and some universities agreed to implement 'budgeting by results' on a trial basis. By 1994, this approach had been extended to all universities which now enjoyed full autonomy over their budget spending Employment of teaching staff: key staff (professors and the director of administration) used to be appointed by the President of the Republic. From 1998, their appointment became the responsibility of the institution Course planning: The decrees introduced in 1994 considerably increased institutional autonomy in relation to course planning
Sweden	Employment of teaching staff: autonomy for the employment of professors was only granted in 1993/94 Buildings and equipment: buildings are normally rented by *Akademiska hus AB*
Liechtenstein	Buildings and equipment: the *FHL* has no autonomy with regard to its buildings, and limited autonomy for equipment
Norway	Budget spending: autonomy was first conferred in 1991 through binding parliamentary instructions *(bevilgningsreglement)* but not through legislation Buildings and equipment: autonomy is limited with regard to buildings but full autonomy is enjoyed in relation to equipment Self-evaluation: institutional responsibility for quality evaluation is included in the 1991 White Paper on higher education, but does not form part of any legislative act

Table 2.1 suggests that in the majority of countries studied, universities had a high degree of autonomy over a wide range of their activities in 1996/97. Institutions in the Nordic countries of Finland, Sweden and Iceland as well as those in the French Community of Belgium, Spain, Ireland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, United Kingdom and Liechtenstein have full autonomy over most areas of their operation. In France and Austria the activities of higher education institutions were in fact quite closely controlled by rules defined by the government and in Germany by *Länder* regulations. Course planning was the area where most of the countries suffered restrictions in institutional autonomy, followed by development planning, budget spending and employment of teaching staff. Self-evaluation was the area where all countries except the French Community of Belgium (*Hautes ecoles* only), Denmark, Greece, France and Norway had full autonomy.

Countries where universities had least autonomy were Germany (with the exception of some pilot projects in selected universities and *Fachhochschulen*), France and Austria. In these countries universities could spend the budget allocated to them by the State, usually as one or more block grants and they were usually responsible for their own internal administration. They did not employ or appoint their own teaching staff, although they managed them. These institutions did not usually own their buildings and course planning was usually strictly controlled by nationally-determined formats which left the institutions with relatively little leeway. The management of the institutions in Austria did not have the authority to undertake long-term development planning, while French universities enjoyed autonomy only in relation to contracts offering their teaching and research services.

In 1980, only the old universities in the United Kingdom and universities in Ireland enjoyed full autonomy while institutions in Sweden had been granted at least partial autonomy in all areas studied. The dates shown in the table suggest that autonomy over administration and internal regulations was given somewhat earlier than autonomy over other areas such as employment of teaching staff, self-evaluation or course planning. In the French Community of Belgium, universities had been given early autonomy over their budget spending in 1971, but were still required to operate within a framework imposed by their organising authority. In contrast, other countries such as the Flemish Community of Belgium, Spain, Luxembourg and Liechtenstein gave autonomy over most areas simultaneously. These different legislative approaches are discussed in Chapter 1: Legislation for Change. Most countries increased the autonomy of their institutions during the 1990s with the exception of Ireland and the United Kingdom where universities had already enjoyed full autonomy in all areas before 1980, as well as Spain where institutional autonomy in most areas was conferred during the 1980s. Buildings and equipment, and self-evaluation appeared to be the most recent areas over which institutions had been given autonomy in the majority of countries though institutions in Austria and Iceland still, in 1997, neither owned nor managed the buildings they worked in.

An important new development since 1980 is the increased power that institutions in all countries except Germany have been given to raise additional money through contracts with external organisations, regional authorities and the State. This will be discussed in the following section on financing.

2.2. REFORMS IN THE FINANCING OF INSTITUTIONS

During the period of the study, changes in the financing of higher education institutions were an important component of their increasing autonomy. The reforms fell into four main areas: a change from earmarked to lump-sum or block grant budgets for recurrent funding; a move towards the introduction of more objective funding formulae; the linking of funding to outputs rather than inputs and the introduction of contract-based funding. In countries with a binary higher education system, non-university institutions saw changes in their funding which were similar to those in universities. In some countries, they were given less autonomy in their funding than universities, especially for buildings, and none had access to funding for research. The dates when the different reforms in the funding of higher education were introduced in the countries under study are shown in Table 2.2 below. The table refers primarily to the financing of institutions for recurrent costs associated with running courses and teaching, but not for basic research.

Table 2.2: Reforms in the financing of higher education and the year the most recent relevant legislation came into force

Country		Awarding of block grants	Formula-based funding		Contract-based funding	Tuition / registration fees
			Primarily input-based	Primarily output-based		
European Union						
B fr	Universities	pre-1980	pre-1980	(-)	(-)	pre-1980
	Hautes écoles	1996	1996	(-)	1995	pre-1980
B nl		pre-1980	pre-1980	(-)	1995	pre-1980
DK		1993	pre-1980	1980	1985	(-)
D		(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
EL		1982	1982	1997	1982	(-)
E		1983	1983	(-)	1983	1983
F		1984	pre-1980	(-)	1984	pre-1980
IRL		pre-1980	pre-1980	(-)	pre-1980	1995
I		1993	1993	(-)	1993	1994
L		1997	(-)	1997	1997	(-)
NL		1985	pre-1980	1993	1983	1993
A		1993	(-)	(-)	pre-1980	(-)
P		1988	1994	(-)	1988	1997
FIN		1988	1986	1994	pre-1980	(-)
S		pre-1980	pre-1980	1993	(-)	(-)
UK		pre-1980	pre-1980	1992	pre-1980	1998
EFTA/EEA						
IS		1990	1990	(-)	1997	pre-1980
LI		1992	1992	(-)	1992	pre-1980
NO		1991	1991	(-)	1988	(-)

Source: Eurydice

Belgium (B fr)

Contract-based funding: only a small number of contracts relate to teaching services.

Formula-based funding: although applicable to the *Hautes écoles* before 1980, this way of financing was extended in 1996.

Germany

Awarding of block grants and formula-based funding: the Higher Education Framework Act was amended in 1998 to allow for the introduction of block grants and formula-based funding.

Tuition/registration fees: in 14 of the 16 *Länder* no fees are charged. In 1996, only 2 *Länder* (Baden-Wurttemberg, Berlin) introduced registration fees.

In 1997 Baden-Wurttemberg introduced tuition fees for students extending the standard period of study by 2 years.

Greece

Formula-based funding: output-based financing has not yet been implemented.

Austria

Contract-based funding: passed in 1975, the law was extended in 1987.

Sweden

Awarding of block grants: since 1993/94, one single block grant has been awarded for undergraduate studies.

Norway

Output-based funding: this type of funding constitutes a negligible part of total funding.

Contract-based funding: although the use of this type of funding dates back to before 1980, regulations governing this type of funding were introduced only in 1988.

2.2.1. THE AWARDING OF BLOCK GRANTS

There was a move in all the countries except in the majority of *Länder* in Germany away from itemised budgets approved by the Ministry to the giving of recurrent funds in the form of block grants which the institutions could spend as they pleased within the regulations for public sector finance. In most countries (Belgium, Denmark, Spain, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal, Finland, Sweden, United Kingdom, Iceland and Norway), the majority of educational funding was provided in this way in 1996/97 though there may also have been separate sums for research, capital expenditure or specific projects and developments. In France, a large proportion of institutional funding is in the form of staff salaries and is therefore not under the control of the institutions themselves. However, as mentioned above, a small, but increasingly important proportion of French institutional finance is based on formulae and contracts, and institutions are increasingly free to allocate their grants to different budget lines.

In Germany, higher education institutions are mainly financed through a process of negotiation with the appropriate Ministry of the *Land* on the basis of proposals submitted by the institutions which are usually linked to past funding. There is limited scope for the transfer of funding between different types of expenditure and there are no objective funding criteria. The Higher Education Framework Act was amended in 1998 to allow for the introduction of block grants.

In almost all the countries studied, the introduction of funding by block grants represented a significant increase in autonomy for the institutions, which then had considerable freedom to decide their own internal spending priorities. In the United Kingdom, the changes in the system of financing institutions during the period of this study were aimed at increasing efficiency, quality and accountability in the use of public funds whilst maintaining institutional autonomy.

In the United Kingdom before 1988, funding was provided as a block grant to universities based on criteria decided by the University Grants Committee which was dominated by academic members. The grants were agreed in quinquennial settlements and based primarily on student numbers. The changes during the period of this study have meant that funding for teaching is now based on a quasi-contractual system which increasingly reflects government, not university, priorities. At the same time, much research funding has been separated from the block grant and is now allocated through a competitive bidding system by the Research Councils. The remaining block grant research funding is now based on performance as assessed periodically at three to five year intervals. The trend in the United Kingdom has, therefore, been away from a system of funding allowing for substantial institutional autonomy and based mainly on higher education sector priorities towards a system of government steering of higher education through performance-related funding of both teaching and research. This change has brought the United Kingdom closer to other countries which use the output-related funding models discussed below.

2.2.2. FORMULA-BASED FUNDING

Table 2.2 shows that the move towards giving recurrent funding to institutions as a block grant was usually accompanied by the introduction of more objective formulae for allocating these funds to institutions. These formulae were often based on the numbers of students on different types of courses. The adoption of such formulae introduced more uniformity across the higher education system by avoiding the lengthy process of negotiation with institutions and the reliance on past funding levels which had often resulted in inequalities between institutions.

Furthermore, formulae are more transparent and easier to adapt to different public spending levels. The funding weighting given to the different courses also allowed governments to steer the system by encouraging institutions to offer courses in priority subject areas by allocating them larger subsidies.

The move towards formula-based funding took place after 1990 in a number of countries (Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, Portugal, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway, and in Germany in the form of pilot schemes), with France only allocating a small proportion of education-related funding by formula to the higher education institutions.

Most countries have adopted an input-based funding model, but a number of countries have increasingly tied their funding to the output of the higher education institutions. However, there are differences in the extent to which the funding models emphasise the meeting of numerical targets or measurements of course success.

The Nordic countries of Denmark, Finland, Sweden and Norway, as well as Greece, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom have all incorporated objective-related measures in their formulae for funding educational expenditure in higher education institutions. However, within this group of countries, some have gone further than others in linking funding for teaching to specific outputs. The Netherlands and Finland have witnessed a move towards linking funding to medium-term objectives which are agreed between the appropriate ministry and the institutions. In Denmark, the amount of funding for universities is determined by the actual number of students passing the required exams and is laid down in the annual Finance Act.

The models used for funding teaching costs in the United Kingdom and Norway were least closely linked to course success in 1996/97. In Norway, a block grant for teaching and research was traditionally allocated on the basis of proposals made by the institution to the Ministry but, after 1990, increases in funding were linked to increases in student numbers. In the United Kingdom, there was a much stronger element of government steering since funding was based on a target number of students. Numbers were determined by the appropriate Funding Council for each university based on historical levels and government priorities. Those universities which failed to meet their numerical targets were penalised financially.

In Ireland, the Higher Education Authority uses a formulae-based system to determine core grants to institutions. Further targeted funding is then provided and linked to particular initiatives. In Denmark, the Netherlands, Finland and Sweden, the funding model was based on a formula which incorporated the number of students, the courses followed and the number of exams passed or qualifications obtained. These formulae have been amended since 1992 in all four countries. An important consequence of such formulae is that institutions are often given less or no funding for students who fail so there is a strong incentive for institutions to promote student success. The models also permit government steering of the course offer through differential subsidies and, in some countries, like Sweden, by setting targets for student numbers and for the number of students graduating in different subjects.

Denmark (1994) and Sweden (1993) recently changed their funding system to base funding for each year on the actual performance of students in that year, rather than on a projection of previous years' results. The Swedish system appeared to be particularly tightly steered in that funding was based on an annual educational contract between the government and the institution which sets out the minimum number of full-time equivalent students. The minimum number of degrees overall was specified as well as targets in specific professional areas such as engineering, teaching and pharmacy. Institutions are given a provisional allocation of funds at the beginning of the year with an adjustment at the end of the year related to performance measured against the objectives set.

During the period reviewed, basic research funding and teaching-related funding have been separated in countries such as Belgium, Denmark, Greece, Spain, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, the United Kingdom and Iceland, apparently so that resource allocation could be based on different criteria. In Germany, where research and teaching funding are not separated, part of the research funding is based on competition and promoted through external funding by the *Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft* (German Research Society).

Although the above funding formulae relate primarily to funding for teaching, it should be noted that part of the public funding for research has in most countries been based traditionally on quality criteria through a competitive bidding process based on peer review of research proposals. Moreover, the basic research funding allocated directly to the institutions was the first element of higher education institutional funding to be linked to quality of output in a number of countries. The Netherlands was one of the first countries to introduce quality-related research funding in 1983 followed by the first United Kingdom research assessment exercise in 1986 as the basis for funding research in universities in the United Kingdom.

2.2.3. CONTRACT-BASED FUNDING

The final trend in the funding of institutions, which is also linked to greater institutional autonomy, is the encouragement given to institutions in most countries since 1980 to raise money by selling their teaching or research services. As Table 2.2 shows, in 1996/97 some form of contract-based funding was possible in all the countries studied except Germany. This freedom for institutions to sell their services on a more or less open market represented a significant conceptual change in countries where education is seen as a public service and in some countries (Spain, France, Luxembourg and Portugal) required a change in the juridical status of the higher education institutions.

Among the countries studied there appear to be two main types of contract undertaken by institutions: contracts with central or regional government for specific additional course programmes or research projects and contracts obtained on the open market with private organisations. The first type of contract usually allows the institutions to raise additional public funds by offering specific courses or research studies in addition to their usual activities which respond to particular central or regional government needs. Contracts of this sort may not be based on a competitive tendering procedure in an open market but their output is usually closely monitored. They may be seen as a restricted version of the objective-based public funding systems described above and often co-exist with input-based funding in countries such as the French Community of Belgium (*Hautes écoles* only), Spain, France, Italy, Portugal and Iceland.

For the institutions themselves, the development of medium-term, contract-based services may bring additional benefits by encouraging investment in strategic planning and management. In France in particular, the expansion of contract-based public funding has proved an important stimulus for institutional change. In a funding regime where a large proportion of the public higher education subsidy was salary-based and therefore inflexible, the contract system has encouraged development of increased institutional autonomy in both the planning of bids and in the management of the funding received.

Contracts with external, non-public organisations are also increasingly common and have been actively encouraged by many governments during a period of public spending restrictions as an alternative source of income for the higher education system. Institutions have therefore started marketing both their teaching and research services. Most countries (the French Community of Belgium, Denmark, Greece, Spain, France, Italy, Luxembourg, Austria, Portugal, Finland, Sweden, Iceland and Norway) have recognised the need for higher education institutions to remain essentially publicly funded while encouraging them to sell their services on an educational market. The Netherlands and the United Kingdom have adopted a more strongly pro-market approach where institutions are encouraged to sell their services to commercial organisations as a result of reductions in their public funding.

2.2.4. TUITION/REGISTRATION FEES[2]

The present section deals with two types of fees paid to institutions and constituting income in addition to government grants and contract-based funding:

- tuition fees intended to cover the cost of the education offered and
- registration fees intended to cover the administrative cost associated with the enrolment and examination of students.

Fees solely intended to cover health care, membership of student organisations, social services or similar costs are not taken into account as they do not increase the funds available for the provision of higher education. This includes the regional taxes (*tassa regionale*) introduced in Italy in 1996 and, although payable on enrolment at higher education institutions, are levied by the regions and entirely destined to cover student support schemes.

To respect the definition of reform as a substantive, intentional change, an increase or decrease in fees can only be considered a reform if the underlying policy has undergone a review. The most radical reform undertaken was the abolition, or introduction, of such fees.

Before examining the reforms in the individual countries, it might be worth looking at the basic arguments for and against fees in higher education. Supporters of fees claim that higher education benefits the individual, who as a consumer of a service, should be made to pay for it; that the additional income is crucial to ensure the adequate provision of higher education at a time of reduced public funding; that the quality of higher education benefits from the increased competition between institutions trying to attract fee-paying students, and finally that tuition fees increase the likelihood of successful academic performance. Opponents argue that investment in higher education is above all an investment that benefits society as a whole, justifying the fact that all taxpayers are asked to contribute towards the cost; that fees act as a barrier or filter to the involvement of students from disadvantaged groups; and that it is the socio-economic background rather than tuition fees that influences academic achievement.

The main motivation for reform was the reduction of state participation in higher education - students and their families were asked to step in where the government withdrew, as a consequence of a restriction in public spending and the political will to encourage self-reliance and consumer choice. The second most influential factor for reform was the desire to improve equal access to higher education either by imposing increased fees only on those whose personal finances would not prevent them from pursuing higher education or by completely abolishing fees paid by students. It is therefore worth noting that reforms with respect to fees were generally linked to a reform of the student support system.

From the ten countries charging tuition/registration fees in 1980 (Belgium, Spain, France, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal, United Kingdom, Iceland and Liechtenstein) all have maintained this policy, while only two German *Länder* (Baden-Württemberg and Berlin) joined their ranks in 1996. Until the beginning of the 1990s fees had been kept at insignificant levels and developments in various countries have shown that the concept of free or almost free higher education is so engraved in people's minds that plans to introduce or significantly raise fees were met with strong opposition. In Italy and Portugal, major fee increases were accepted by students only when accompanied by a review of the student support schemes in favour of students from low-income families as well as tax allowances.

---

[2] The information in this section has to a large extent been taken from the study published by the European Commission, Eurydice, *Key Topics in Education, Volume 1, Financial Support for Students in Higher Education in Europe, 1999*, where more detailed information on this subject can be found.

In the United Kingdom, tuition fees have traditionally been paid by the relevant authorities (the Local Education Authorities in England and Wales, the Education and Library Boards in Northern Ireland and the Students Awards Agency in Scotland) rather than the students themselves. In the recent past, the Government has adjusted its tuition fee levels to reflect its policies. Fees were first increased to encourage higher education institutions to recruit more students on a marginal cost basis. Later, when the Government's target for around one in three of young people to enter higher education was met, fees were decreased to discourage institutions from recruiting more students than the Government had planned. Following the recommendations of the National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education, new arrangements for student support were incorporated into the Teaching and Higher Education Act 1998. Students were now required to make a means-tested contribution towards the cost of tuition fees. The maximum contribution represents approximately a quarter of the full cost of an average course. The remaining cost is met by the Government.

Following a reduction in public spending on higher education accompanied by the political will to create more study places on the one hand and to make students pay for a service from which they draw a personal benefit on the other, institutions in Portugal and Italy were granted the freedom to supplement public funding by an increase in tuition fees. In Portugal fees were increased in 1992 with the intention to gradually increase them further until they would cover 50% of the total cost of higher education. Due to strong opposition by students, fees were suspended in 1995 and only reintroduced in 1997 at a level representing 8% of the total study cost and accompanied by measures alleviating the financial burden for students in need. In Italy, the Prime Ministerial Decree of 1994 replaced a system based on low tuition fees and low support for students by a system of higher tuition fees and some support for students in need. Since 1994, Italian institutions have been free to set and levy the major part of tuition fees, the *contributi universitari*, as long as they respect the upper and lower limits set by Government in the budget of state universities. The total income derived from fees must not exceed 20% of the contribution to the budget coming from the Ministry.

A similar approach had been adopted by the Netherlands at the beginning of 1990s, with the introduction of a 'high fee/high aid' strategy which raised tuition fees and the financial support for students from low income families simultaneously. Another significant change was introduced by the Higher Education and Scientific Research Act in 1993 when fees were no longer considered a source of income for the State but for the institutions themselves.

Unlike other countries, Ireland, which in 1994 charged the highest tuition fees in the EU, has since abandoned the route of increased fees. In the 1980s, at a time of severe economic recession and growing participation in higher education, the Government decided to increase tuition fees to an unprecedentedly high level. Although students with maintenance grants had their fees paid by their sponsors, various reports showed that the majority of school leavers entering higher education in the 1990s still came from the higher social groups. The Government concluded that there was a need not only to redirect expenditure towards disadvantaged groups but also to dismantle psychological barriers, and it decided rather than to abolish tuition fees altogether, to shift the burden from the students to the Government. In the academic year 1995/96, half the fees were paid by the public authorities for most full-time students on undergraduate courses in order to promote equality of access. The following academic year the entire amount was taken in charge by the Government.

Despite their abolition in all German *Länder* during the 1950s and 1960s, registration and tuition fees have been the subject of recent discussions aimed at reforming the Higher Education Framework Act. In 1997, representatives from the federal and *Länder* governments rejected the idea of tuition fees being charged to students. Nevertheless, in 1996, two of the sixteen German *Länder* (Baden-Wurttemberg and Berlin) decided to introduce enrolment fees in an attempt to increase the efficiency of the higher education system while at the same time reducing public spending.

In 1983, the Autonomous Communities or other relevant national authorities in Spain were granted the right to fix the level of tuition fees and the income generated was no longer considered income for the Government but for the institutions themselves. These increased fees are considered a major source of income for Spanish universities, expected to fund 30% of their expenses from non-public sources by the year 2004. So far however, any increase above the rate of inflation has been met with strong social resistance.

Reforms were, however, not limited to the question of whether fees should be charged and at what level, but also dealt with the authority responsible for collecting fees and fixing their amount. In 1980, it had been mainly the public authorities (Belgium, Spain, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal, Iceland and Liechtenstein) that decided on the amount of fees to be charged and the allocation of the resulting income. During the 1990s, in an effort to strengthen their financial autonomy, institutions were granted the right to set their own fees in the Belgium Flemish Community, Italy, and to some extent in the Netherlands. In 1997, funds stemming from fees were considered income at the disposal of the institutions in all participating countries except in the French Community of Belgium where fees charged by the *Hautes écoles* are offset against Community grants.

In summing up this section, it becomes clear that reforms in this area were rare during the period of this study, with only six countries changing their system during the period under consideration. Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom have introduced significant increases in fees to be borne by students, while Ireland shifted the financial burden of tuition fees from the student to the Government. The modifications brought about in Germany, although possibly the first sign of a move away from the tradition of free higher education, have so far been limited to two *Länder*.

2.3. QUALITY ASSESSMENT AND CONTROL

In all the countries except the French Community of Belgium and the majority of the German *Länder*, the devolution to higher education institutions of power over the spending of their budgets was accompanied by the introduction of a considerably more formalised process of evaluation of the quality of their provision. It should be emphasised that this is a very new process. In most of these countries a systematic, nationally-defined process of quality evaluation of higher education has been introduced since 1984, but in many this is still at an early stage of implementation or, as in Germany, limited to certain regions or *Länder*. The Belgian French Community has been planning the introduction of such a system for the *Hautes écoles* since 1995, but no measures have been put in place yet. Only in the United Kingdom is any specific link made between the outcome of the evaluation process and the funding of institutions. In countries where funding is based on output-linked models (Denmark, the Netherlands, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Liechtenstein), the control process may include the verification of funding-related information. In most countries the stated primary purpose of such evaluation is to improve the quality of provision.

The evaluation of quality in higher education appears to consist of three main elements which may be evaluated in different ways and to a greater or lesser extent in different countries.

- **Institutional evaluation** focuses on the operation of the higher education institution as a whole - its teaching and learning environment and its management. In the majority of countries it is evaluated primarily through a self-evaluation process combined with external peer review. In some countries, the external evaluation is restricted to ensuring the internal systems of quality assessment are effective, whereas in others it comprises a detailed inspection of the operation of the institution. Comparisons may be made between different institutions in the same country.
- **Programme evaluation** focuses on a particular discipline or subject area and compares the provision of several (or all) higher education institutions within a country. Once again, evaluation usually comprises a combination of self-evaluation and external peer review using experts in the

subject area from the academic and the business world where relevant. Experts may be drawn from other countries in order to encourage an international perspective.

- **Research evaluation** focuses on the quality and output of research in universities and is most frequently evaluated through a process of peer review.

This section focuses mainly on the process of institutional evaluation, though changes in the assessment of programme and research quality will also be discussed. Table 2.3 summarises some important aspects of the process of university evaluation in the countries under study in 1996/97, though it also takes account of some of the changes since then. Information on the evaluation of non-university institutions was less detailed than for universities and could therefore not be included. The table includes the date when the current systematic national process of evaluation was introduced, the evaluating body, the destination of the evaluation report and the body responsible for monitoring such evaluations at national level. Since the duties of this central agency vary according to the country, the term monitoring must be seen as embracing coordination, supervision, verification and follow-up.

Table 2.3: Aspects of nationally defined systems for the evaluation of higher education institutions in place in 1996/97

Country	Year current process introduced	Evaluating body				Evaluation reports made available to	Central monitoring agency
		Institution concerned	Academic community	Business community	Students		
European Union							
B fr	(-)						
B nl	1991	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Public	*Vlaams Interuniversitaire Raad (VLIR)*
DK	1992	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Public	*Evalueringscenteret*
D	1991	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Public	Several agencies at *Land* level
EL	1997	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs	*Simvoulia Ekpedeftikis Aksiologissis ke programmatismou (CEPE)*
E	1995	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Public	*Consejo de Universidades*
F	1984	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Public	*Comité National d'Évaluation (CNE)*
IRL	1997	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Public	Higher Education Authority
I	1993	Yes	Yes	No	No	Ministry of Universities and Scientific and Technological Research	*Osservatorio per la valutazione*
L	1997						*Conseil national de l'enseignement supérieur*
NL	1993	Yes	Yes	No	No	Public	*Vereniging van Universiteiten (VSNU)* *HBO-raad. Vereniging van hogescholen*
A	1993	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Rector of institution concerned. In case of cross-university evaluations, reports are made public.	*Fachhochschulrat* (for the *Fachhochschulen*) and *Universitätskuratorium* (for universities)
P	1994	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Public	*Conselho Nacional de Avaliação*
FIN	1991	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Public	*Korkeakoulujen arviointineuvosto*
S	1993	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Public	*Högskoleverket*
UK	1992	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Public	UK (E/W): as of 1997 Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA) UK (NI): till 1999 Department of Education Northern Ireland (DENI), thereafter Department of Higher and Further Education, Training and Employment (DHFETE) UK (SC): Scottish Higher Education Funding Council (SHEFC)
EFTA/EEA							
IS	1997	Yes	Yes	No	No	Public	Ministry of Education, Science and Culture
LI	1997	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Institution concerned	(-)
NO	1992	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Public	*Norsk institutt for studier av forskning og utdanning (NIFU)*

Source: Eurydice

Belgium (B fr)	The Decree of 5 August 1995 provides for the introduction of self-evaluation at the *Hautes ecoles*.
Germany	The individual *Länder* take different approaches.
Greece	The systems for self-evaluation and the evaluation by students are not yet fully implemented.
Spain	Following the pilot programme 'Evaluation of the Quality of the University System' during the period from 1992 to 1994.
Italy	Self-evaluation is mainly concerned with financial control.
Luxembourg	A comprehensive evaluation system of public higher education is currently being developed.
The Netherlands	There is only programme evaluation, but no institutional evaluation.
Norway	In 1992, a 5-year pilot project was initiated by the Ministry of Education, Research and Church Affairs with nation-wide evaluations of five selected study disciplines (business administration, sociology, engineering, mathematics and music).

Table 2.3 shows a number of aspects of institutional evaluation in higher education which were in place in 1996/97. Firstly, the dates given for the introduction of the current systematic nationally-defined evaluation process for institutions indicate that these systems are very recent in the great majority of countries and are clearly still under development. The French Community of Belgium had no nationally-defined system of quality assessment in place in 1996/97 and quality control was the responsibility of the individual institution with no externally-imposed norms or rules. In Germany, it was the Rectors' Conference which initiated a harmonised evaluation system in 1991 rather than the public authorities. In Ireland the Universities Act, which came into force in June 1997, specifically requires each university to establish procedures for quality assurance aimed at improving the quality of education and related services provided by the university. The Higher Education Authority has a statutory role under the act to assist the universities in the achievement of this objective, to review the quality assurance procedures established and to publish a report on the outcome of its review. Only France and the Netherlands based their current system on one introduced before 1990; the Netherlands provided the legal basis for this system only in 1993. All the other countries have made modifications to their systems during the 1990s. This indicates the desire to test and review the effects of such newly-introduced evaluation processes in a number of countries, which is reflected in the piloting of the evaluation system during the 1990s in Denmark, Spain, the United Kingdom and Norway.

With regard to evaluation methods, all countries incorporated an element of self-evaluation supplemented by peer evaluation using academic experts. The views of the business community were canvassed in the majority of countries studied (the Flemish Community of Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Spain, France, Ireland, Portugal, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom) and students were consulted in all countries except Italy, the Netherlands and Iceland. In Austria and Sweden, self-evaluation was the most important component of the process of institutional evaluation while in France and the United Kingdom, the judgements of external experts were more influential.

In most countries, the reports were made public, except in Italy and Greece where they were distributed only to the Ministry (and the Evaluation Observatory in Italy). In Austria and in Liechtenstein reports on individual institutions were made available only to the institution concerned which would take the findings into account in its decision-making. In Austria, evaluation reports on various institutions in the same field were however made public.

Finally, in all the countries with a systematic nation-wide evaluation process, this was coordinated at national level by a non-ministerial body or council, apart from Iceland. This body may have been linked primarily to the government which nominated its members (Denmark, France, Ireland, Italy, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom) or may have been closer to the academic world (the Flemish Community of Belgium, Germany, Greece, Spain, the Netherlands and Norway). Only in Ireland, and the United Kingdom did this body also have the responsibility of funding higher education, a situation which has changed since 1997 in parts of the United Kingdom. The setting up of such bodies clearly indicated the desire of governments for higher education evaluation to be seen to be independent of the political process. Neave (1994) described such bodies as a 'supervisory layer' inserted between the ministry and the individual institution but warned that they may nevertheless allow governments to steer higher education by determining priorities while apparently maintaining a distance from their operationalisation in the evaluation process.

The major reform seen in most countries, except in the French Community of Belgium and the majority of *Länder* in Germany, was the introduction of a systematic nationally-defined quality control system to a sector which had previously relied on institutions to monitor the quality of teaching and learning, together with ministerial approval and verification of spending. Because the systems of quality evaluation in place in 1996/97 in most European countries had been developed relatively recently, some changes were still ongoing during the period of the study. In many of the countries which had developed a nationally-defined system of quality control during the 1980s (Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom), there was a change in emphasis during the 1990s from a reliance on the judgement of the institutions themselves in assessing teaching and learning to the increasing use of external peer review. This trend can be seen in the strengthening of the role of the external examiners in Denmark, the incorporation of 'visitation committees' into the evaluation process in the Netherlands, the strengthening of the external moderation of the system in Sweden with the creation of the National Agency for Higher Education, and in the assigning of responsibility for quality assessment to the Funding Councils in the United Kingdom.

2.4. OVERVIEW OF REFORMS

In all the countries studied except the United Kingdom, the direction of reforms in management and control of higher education since 1980 was towards giving more autonomy to the higher education institutions, with the State devolving many of its powers of detailed prescription. At the same time, institutional accountability was increased through the implementation of nationally-defined systems of quality assurance and, in some countries, by the introduction of objective-based budgeting. However, the extent to which government control has been decentralised varies greatly between the different European countries; Denmark, the Netherlands, Finland and Sweden appear to be furthest ahead in this process.

Overall, there are a number of patterns of reform evident from the trends identified in different areas in this chapter. Firstly, there is the distinction which is discussed in Chapter 1: Legislation for Change between countries which have legislated for reform in different areas of higher education gradually, step-by-step and those which have introduced a complete new legal framework for higher education in the form of one or more framework acts. The first pattern was reflected in the area of autonomy and control in countries such as the French Community of Belgium, Austria, Italy, the Netherlands and Finland by the gradual delegation of tasks of institutional management such as budget spending, administration or course planning. In the Flemish Community of Belgium, Greece, Spain, France, Ireland, Luxembourg, Sweden, Iceland and Liechtenstein, the legal basis for reforms in the autonomy, financing and quality control of higher education institutions was introduced as a single act. The latter approach allowed changes in the financing and management of institutions to be introduced simultaneously, giving greater coherence to the reform process. A third approach is demonstrated by Portugal where a major act was passed in 1988 leading to further developments in the form of laws and decrees.

Secondly, the devolution of some state powers to the higher education institutions was clearly accompanied in most countries by the establishment of formal systems of funding and quality control. These gave governments tighter control of the overall funding of higher education institutions both by the use of funding formulae and through giving an increasing proportion of funds for both teaching and research through contracts or through objective-based budgeting linked to the performance of institutions. In the area of quality control, the overall tendency has been to move away from a reliance on the institutions to carry out their own quality assurance, towards the introduction of a nationally-defined system mediated by an independent, often government-appointed agency. This trend was visible in all the countries studied except Germany and the French Community of Belgium. However, such systems were most developed in the Netherlands, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom where higher education funding has been refocused on performance objectives agreed by the institutions and the ministry, or, in the case of the United Kingdom, by the Funding Councils. In addition, institutions in all countries except the Flemish Community of Belgium and Germany have been given freedom to raise money through contracts to provide specific educational or research services to either central or regional government or to the private sector.

These changes appear to support Neave and Van Vught's (1991) argument that the reforms in higher education during the 1980s focused mainly on the giving of process autonomy while strengthening government steering of the product through planning and funding on the basis of agreed objectives and through quality assurance systems. However, it is argued here that during the 1990s, in some countries at least, the continuing reform process may result in other potential consequences entailing still greater autonomy for institutions.

The third trend visible from the reforms in this area is linked to the increasing responsibility given to institutions during the 1990s to manage their own affairs, to enter into contracts for their services and, in particular, to engage in a process of development planning. In the countries at the forefront of these changes, Denmark, the Netherlands, Finland, Sweden and Norway, this has required the development of a strong institutional identity combined with a more explicit management culture. In the United Kingdom, increased government steering through the system for funding teaching and research has brought institutions into direct competition for funds and has stimulated many similar changes. In some countries, management responsibilities at institutional level have been redefined, though there have apparently been few major changes to the structure of the internal management bodies of institutions. However the inclusion of external members on the most senior governing bodies of higher education institutions is now universal in all countries except Greece and the majority of *Länder* in Germany. Furthermore, in some countries such as Denmark and the Netherlands elected councils have been given a reduced role in decision-making.

In their international study of higher education policy which encompassed both European and non-European countries, Goedegebuure et al. (1994) identified a general trend away from a state-control model of higher education towards a state-supervisory model where the Government prefers to steer the system from a distance by setting broad parameters for development. They also argued that this trend was accompanied by the strengthening of management in institutions through changes in the composition of governing bodies, the streamlining of decision-making within institutions and changing the role of the democratic institutional councils from a control-oriented to an advice-oriented one. However their study did not include amongst others Belgium, Spain, Italy and Austria, countries which were shown in Table 2.2 to have moved less towards the adoption of output-based funding and where the tradition of state control remains stronger. Although these countries may eventually move in the same direction, the current analysis suggests that they still have some way to go before they develop the government steering at a distance and managerial culture found in higher education institutions in the Nordic countries, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom.

CHAPTER 3: ACCESS AND WASTAGE

This chapter focuses on the development of admission procedures and entry requirements for higher education since 1980. It examines whether restrictions are placed on the number of applicants admitted for certain courses and by whom these are set, which selection criteria are applied and what the access routes for mature-age students and those with non-traditional qualifications are. The chapter concludes with a discussion on measures designed to control dropout and wastage from higher education and any changes which have taken place in this area since 1980.

The upsurge in demand for higher education places since the 1960s experienced in all European countries triggered a re-examination of access policies in many. Countries faced the difficult task of balancing the growing demand for a highly qualified workforce against the cost of a mass higher education system and the need to maintain the quality of higher education provision. Policies governing general access to higher education or access to specific fields of study are mainly a result of the demand for higher education graduates by the national economy, student demand for higher education, the number of places available at institutional level and budgetary considerations. The important role played by the demands of the labour market for qualified workers and the principle of social justice were signalled by the attempt in most countries to widen participation by traditionally under-represented groups such as women and those from disadvantaged backgrounds. Table 1.1 in Chapter 1: Legislation for Change shows that all countries except Luxembourg and Liechtenstein have made legislative or policy-based changes to their admission systems since 1980.

3.1. REFORMS IN HIGHER EDUCATION ADMISSION PROCEDURES

In all countries studied, the standard basic requirement for entry to university is the successful completion of general upper secondary education. In addition, entry to some vocationally-related areas of higher education is usually possible for those with a vocational upper secondary qualification. In a number of countries, holders of such qualifications are, at least in principle, also granted access to other higher education programmes. Entry to specialised higher education courses in art, music and sport has been based on personal aptitude during the entire period and is therefore selective in all countries. In 1994, France abolished selection to sports programmes based on physical ability.

In most countries, the great increase in numbers wishing to study and the need to control the supply of certain professionals has made it necessary to limit access to some extremely over-subscribed university courses and selection has become particularly competitive and demanding for courses such as human and veterinary medicine, dentistry, engineering and architecture. In some countries, this has given rise to controversy and challenges in court. Furthermore, entry to the newer vocationally-related courses offered mainly in the non-university sector has been made selective in most countries, due mainly to limits in the capacity of the institutions.

In order to examine the reforms to admissions policies in higher education it is important to understand the selection process at entry to undergraduate courses applicable at the beginning and the end of the period under review.

3.1.1. CHANGES IN THE SELECTIVITY AT ENTRY TO HIGHER EDUCATION

Table 3.1 compares the level of selectivity at entry to higher education in 1980/81 and 1996/97.

Table 3.1: Selectivity at entry to higher education in 1980/81 and 1996/97

Non-university vocational sector

	B fr	B nl	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO
1980/81			●	○	(-)	(-)	●	●	(-)		○	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	●	○		●
1996/97			○	○	●	●	●	●	●	○	○	●	●	●	(-)	●	○	○	○

University sector

	B fr	B nl	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO
1980/81	○	○	●	○	●	○	○	●			○		●	●	●	●	○		●
1996/97	○	○	○	○	●	●	○	●	○		○		●	●	●	●	○	○	○

Selective for no courses ○ Selective for some courses ● Selective for most courses

Source: Eurydice

The table does not include specialised courses in art, music and sport as access to these courses is subject to aptitude tests in all participating countries, except France which grants open access to sports programmes.

The table shows that despite rising demand for places in higher education the selectivity of the system has changed in relatively few countries over the period concerned. Countries selecting their entrants to higher education far outnumber those still granting open access, with roughly the same number of countries applying selection for most of their courses as for some courses only.

Spain has, since 1980, imposed increased selectivity for the majority of courses in an effort to balance the surge in demand with the number of higher education places available. In Denmark and Norway, higher education has become less selective since 1980/81 and Greece is planning to reduce the selectivity of its higher education system from the year 2000. In these three countries, the decrease in selectivity has been primarily a result of an increase in the number of places available on popular courses, although in Norway low unemployment was also a contributing factor. From 1991 onwards, the Danish Ministry of Education and the higher education institutions have made efforts to redistribute the study places offered towards the area of maximum demand in order to make best use of existing capacity and to reduce the number of unsuccessful applications. In addition, the aim of the 1992 Multi-Annual Agreement was to encourage institutions to admit as many qualified applicants as their resources will permit (open intake). Norway introduced a system of 'national access' in 1995/96 whereby students with suitable qualifications applying to study the classics or social and natural sciences would be offered a place for the course they wish to study, but not necessarily at the institution of their choice. Greece's 1997 Education 2000 Act includes provision to increase the number of higher education places available by the year 2000. During the 1990s, Sweden significantly increased the number of higher education places available with the aim of tackling skills shortages, especially in technological areas. At the same time, however, the demand for higher education and the time students spend in higher education has also increased. Therefore the expected positive effect in the form of less selectivity has not yet been realised.

Liechtenstein and Italy (university sector) have both ended open access policies for certain programmes as the demand for places has started to outgrow supply. In countries like France, Italy, Luxembourg and Austria, the non-university sector is currently much more selective than the traditionally open-access university sector.

There was significant growth in the number of higher education places in the United Kingdom in the late 1980s and early 1990s, largely in polytechnics and the Scottish central institutions, which gained university status in 1992 following the passing of the Further and Higher Education Acts. The growth was largely demand driven, but in the mid-1990s, the Government introduced target numbers for undergraduate enrolments which the funding councils and, in turn the institutions, were expected not to exceed. Recent announcements concerning the future funding of higher education will lead to a renewed expansion of higher education, with particular emphasis on initiatives to support access, especially for part-time students.

In Belgium, Germany, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Austria and Iceland (for the University of Iceland only), candidates with the appropriate school-leaving qualification have a constitutional right to higher education but not necessarily to a particular field of study. There have been no limitations placed on university education admissions in Luxembourg or Austria during the period considered, although entry to many of the non-university courses continues to be based on selection. Entry to nursery and primary teacher training courses at the Luxembourg *Institut supérieur d'études et de recherches pédagogiques* (*ISERP*) is based on a language test in French, German and *Letzeburgesch* and requires good grades in the secondary school-leaving exam, while entry to the *Institut supérieur de technologie* (*IST*) requires the submission of a dossier.

In both, the French and Flemish Communities of Belgium, entry to university has traditionally been open to all students with a secondary school-leaving certificate, except for courses in applied sciences which have been selective on the basis of entry exams since long before 1980. As of August 1997, the Government has imposed limits on the number of qualified doctors and dentists and each Community has responded differently to the implementation of this change. In the French Community, entry to medicine and dentistry courses will remain open and potential doctors and dentists will be selected for the second cycle of the course on the basis of their performance during the first cycle. Those not selected will be given the chance to change to another related course. The Flemish Community, in 1997, successfully introduced a centralised entrance examination for medicine and dentistry despite opposition from universities, students and other interest groups. Entry to all other university and non-university courses remains open for all students having obtained a secondary school-leaving certificate. The decision on limiting study places for physiotherapists has been postponed.

In Germany, the introduction of selection criteria for university courses has been controversial and their application is only possible under precisely defined conditions based on capacity as some admission decisions have been challenged successfully in the courts. This required the development of nationwide allocation procedures for over-subscribed courses in 1985 and further changes in the selection process are currently under discussion. The procedure for entry to selective courses was changed in 1985 by introducing an additional multi-stage selection procedure for studies in medicine. Besides the performance in school and the length of time an applicant has been waiting for a place, additional selection criteria in this special selection procedure (*Besonderes Auswahlverfahren*) are the results of a special assessment procedure (*Feststellungsverfahren*) and possibly a selection interview conducted by the institution concerned. Due to the increase in places in medicine paralleled by a relative drop in the number of applicants, this special selection procedure was suspended at the beginning of the academic year 1997/98.

In Italy, during the 1990s, some universities have begun to impose limitations on the number of places offered in architecture, dentistry, and human and veterinary medicine, selecting candidates through entrance examinations. Following various juridical decisions, a regulation was issued by the Ministry in July 1997, giving it legal power to restrict access to the courses mentioned above, and in some other cases, at the request of the institutions for reasons of limited capacity. In 1998, the Constitutional Court, ruled in favour of restrictions on higher education admissions, without a law by Parliament, only for the specific courses quoted above. In August 1999, a law finally clarified the situation by stating for which courses admission is restricted either on a national level or at the request of the institution, and by defining the general selection criteria.

Changes in the selection procedures fell into two main groups: changes in the locus of responsibility for the selection process and changes in the selection criteria applied. Table 3.2 shows the changes in the locus of responsibility for determining the selection criteria for over-subscribed courses between 1980/81 and 1996/97, and gives information on the selection criteria applied.

Table 3.2: Selection criteria at entry to higher education: 1980/81 and 1996/97

Country	**Responsibility for setting criteria for over-subscribed courses**		**Selection criteria applied**	
	1980/81	**1996/97**	**1980/81**	**1996/97**
		European Union		
B fr (universities)	Government and institutions (*sciences appliquées* for civil engineers only)	Government and institutions (*sciences appliquées* for civil engineers only)	Entrance exam	Entrance exam
B nl (universities)	Government and institutions (*toegepaste wetenschappen* for civil engineers only)	Government and institutions (*toegepaste wetenschappen* for civil engineers only)	Entrance exam	Entrance exam
DK	Government	Institutions (to national standards)	Marks obtained in school-leaving exam	Marks obtained in school-leaving exam, subjects studied, tests, interviews, work experience
D (universities)	Federal and *Länder* procedures	Federal and *Länder* procedures	School performance, waiting period, special categories, exams	School performance, waiting period, special categories, exams
(*Fachhochschulen*)	Institutions	Institutions	On the basis of the average mark in the *Abitur* (secondary school leaving certificate), the period spent waiting before applying for admission	On the basis of the average mark in the *Abitur* (secondary school leaving certificate), the period spent waiting before applying for admission
EL	Government	Government	Entrance exam	Marks in general examination
E (universities)	National government	National government	Marks in university entrance exam and the average of grades obtained in general upper secondary education	Marks in university entrance exam and the average of grades obtained in general upper secondary education
F	Institutions (medical and vocational courses)	Institutions (medical and vocational courses)	Marks in exams at end of first year (medical courses); marks in exams, interview and previous academic performance (vocational courses)	Marks in exams at end of first year (medical courses); marks in exams, interview and previous academic performance (vocational courses)
IRL	Institutions	Institutions (to national standards)	National University of Ireland introduces first points system for constituent colleges	Points gained in school-leaving certificate (plus an interview for a tiny proportion of courses)
I	(-)	Government and institutions	(-)	Entrance exam (non-university) Marks in university entrance exam and in school-leaving exam (medicine, surgery, veterinary medicine, architecture)
L (non-university sector)	Government	Government	Marks at secondary school-leaving exam	Marks at secondary school-leaving exam. For access to *ISERP*, an exam in French, German and *Letzeburgesch* is required in addition. Entry to *IST* is based on a dossier
NL	Institutions (*HBO*) Government (universities)	Government	Selection criteria set by institutions (*HBO*); weighted lottery-type draw based on marks in secondary school-leaving exams (universities)	Weighted lottery-type draw based on marks in secondary school-leaving exams

Table 3.2: Selection criteria at entry to higher education: 1980/81 and 1996/97 (continued)

Country	Responsibility for setting criteria for over-subscribed courses		Selection criteria applied	
	1980/81	1996/97	1980/81	1996/97
A (*Fachhoch-schulen*)	(-)	Institutions	(-)	Entrance exams for *Fachhochschulen*.
P	Government	Government and institutions	Marks in secondary school-leaving examination.	Marks in school-leaving exam and the results of a national exam in two or three subjects. As a result of the 1997 Law, institutions may now set their own exams or tests.
FIN	Institutions	Institutions	Marks in secondary school-leaving exam and the matriculation examination, entrance tests, work experience and previous studies in some fields.	Marks in secondary school-leaving exam and the matriculation examination, entrance tests, work experience and previous studies in some fields.
S	Government	Institutions (to national standards)	Marks in school-leaving exam, work-experience or work experience in combination with university aptitude test.	Marks in school-leaving exam, university aptitude test, work experience or work experience in combination with university aptitude test.
UK	Institutions	Institutions	Marks in school-leaving examinations or equivalent qualifications, interviews.	Although selection is mainly determined by grades in school-leaving examinations (or equivalent qualifications) and/or interview, other criteria may also be used, depending on the area of study and institution concerned.
EFTA/EEA				
IS	Institutions	Institutions	Grades in a competitive examination at the end of the first semester for medical subjects, grades in school-leaving examinations and work experience for teacher training and technical colleges.	Grades in a competitive examination at the end of the first semester for medical subjects, grades in school-leaving examinations and work experience for teacher training and technical colleges.
LI	(-)	Institutions	(-)	Secondary school-leaving exam and work experience.
NO	Institutions (universities) Government (non-university sector)	Government	Points system based on marks in school-leaving exam (additional points for specialised education and work experience, weighting varies according to type of study and institution)	Points system based on marks in school-leaving exam, subjects studied.

Source: Eurydice.

This table does not include specialised courses in art, music and sport as access to these courses is subject to aptitude tests in all participating countries, except in France where there is open access to sports programmes. In addition, the table does not allow for the use of age, nationality or non-traditional qualifications as selection criteria sometimes applied to fill quotas reserved for special groups of students.

3.1.1.1. Changes in the locus of responsibility for the selection process

Table 3.2 shows that by 1996/97 all countries placed some restrictions on entry to higher education, especially in the non-university sector. In the majority of countries, it was the institutions' responsibility to decide on the criteria for the selection of applicants for over-subscribed courses. The government had full or shared responsibility for deciding the selection criteria in the minority of countries (Belgium, Germany, Greece, Spain, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal and Norway) often to ensure greater fairness through the use of common criteria. Only two countries had transferred this responsibility from the institutions to the Government: Norway for the university sector and the

Netherlands for the non-university sector. Denmark, Ireland, Sweden and Portugal gave institutions the right to set their own selection criteria while observing government guidelines.

Where access to higher education was limited, the decision about the overall number of places offered was most commonly taken by the institutions themselves in 1980/81 and this was still the case in 1996/97. This decision was based mainly on the capacity of the institution but in some countries it was steered by government-imposed target numbers of places (Denmark, Ireland, Sweden and United Kingdom) and/or graduates (Finland). In most participating countries, however, the Government decided the number of available places or the target number of graduates in medicine, veterinary medicine, dentistry and teaching on a labour-market basis. In France, the number of students to be admitted to studies in medicine is determined jointly by the institutions and the Ministries for Health and Education, taking into account the capacity of university hospitals to train students.

In Italy, Portugal and Norway, the number of places offered in all disciplines is decided by the appropriate Ministry taking into account the capacity of institutions and the demands of the labour market. In Germany, the *Länder* ministries only take account of the capacity of institutions, but not the labour market.

A number of countries established a national body to coordinate the admissions process for all higher education institutions or expanded its radius of action during the 1990s. Ireland set up the Central Applications Office (CAO) in 1976 to process applications for places in universities and since 1992 the CAO has covered the institutes of technology, the colleges of education and a number of smaller specialist institutions. The Netherlands created the Information Management Group in 1992, to administer the Central Registration Procedure. The United Kingdom created the Universities and Colleges Admissions Service (UCAS) in 1993 for all first degree courses, following the merger of the Universities Central Council on Admissions (UCCA), and the Polytechnics Central Admissions System (PCAS). Although UCAS acts as a clearing house for admissions to higher education institutions, the institutions are autonomous bodies and each determines its own admissions policy. Norway inaugurated the Universities and Colleges Admissions Service in 1991. A pilot scheme started in 1992 and the system became fully operational in 1995.

The Netherlands (1992), Sweden (from 1997), Norway (1995) and institutions in Ireland chose to replace or supplement institution-determined selection criteria by common, national standards for ranking candidates for admission to higher education. This was in order to reduce the variation between institutions and improve fairness. In the Netherlands, the non-university *HBO* institutions, which had previously been able to select students, could no longer do so after 1992 when they came under the same legislation as the universities. The institutions retained responsibility for deciding their own selection criteria for particular courses in Ireland and Sweden.

In a number of countries, institutions were recently given or will soon be given (greater) responsibility for the selection of applicants to their courses and sometimes also for determining the number of places offered for most courses within a quota agreed with the Government: Denmark (1993), Germany (for the selection of part of the applicants from 1998), Portugal (public institutions from 1999), Sweden (1993) and Iceland (1997). The devolution of such responsibility was often part of the process of giving increased autonomy to institutions described in Chapter 2: Management, Finance and Control.

3.1.1.2. Changes in selection criteria applied

During the period under consideration most countries increased the range of selection criteria applied to identify students most able to follow certain courses. Grades achieved in the secondary school-leaving exams were the most widespread tool used to measure the suitability of applicants in 1980/81 and this was even more the case in 1996/97. These were often supported by entrance exams at national or institutional level.

In France, the 1980s and 1990s have seen the gradual development and expansion of a vocationally-oriented selective sector both within the traditionally open-access universities and outside. The selective, university-based *IUT*s, *IUP*s and the engineering colleges (*écoles d'ingénieurs*) have doubled or even tripled during this time, while the traditional university courses have expanded only about one and half times. Entry into the second year of university courses in medicine, dentistry and pharmacy remains conditional on passing the first year examinations. Entry to most courses in the non-university sector is selective but the degree of selectivity varies for different courses and institutions.

In the Netherlands, legislation was required to allow the application of a *numerus fixus* to specific courses at universities or, more commonly, at higher professional education institutions. At the beginning of the period considered, restrictions could only be applied on the grounds of limited capacity but in 1984, legislation made it possible to limit places on the basis of labour market considerations. Courses such as biology, medicine, various types of therapy courses, tourism, industrial design and journalism were affected. Institutions decide on the number of students they are able to accommodate, while the Government decides on the number of places necessary to meet labour market demands.

In Norway, admission requirements for courses with a *numerus clausus* are expressed in points obtained through good results and the array of relevant subjects studied at secondary school, through previous higher education, military service, or study at a *folkehogskoler* (folk high school); or simply age. Some courses give credit for work experience. In addition, students are offered the possibility of re-sitting exams in order to improve their grades. This has led to a situation where students delay entering higher education in order to increase their point count and by 1996 over 25 percent of all applicants were aged 25 or over ('backwater effect'). Since 1992, state colleges have tried fighting this trend by reserving a quota of places for applicants between 19 and 21 years of age, and for human and veterinary medicine by a quota for students who have not improved their exam results by retaking them. From 2000 onwards, thirty to forty percent of places will be reserved for those entering on the basis of their original results in the school-leaving exam with no points awarded for other activities.

France and Iceland applied a system of delayed selection for medical courses. The results of an exam at the end of the first year (France) or after the first semester (Iceland) of study are used to determine whether students should be allowed to continue with their studies in medicine. In response to the government-imposed limits on graduates in medicine and dentistry, in 1997, the French Community of Belgium introduced a selection process after the first study cycle which will show its effect in the year 2000.

During the period studied, only Greece, Spain and Portugal organised national exams for entry to higher education and all three made changes to these. In Greece, national entrance exams (general exams) were introduced in 1983 in the face of a great upsurge in demand in order to regulate admission to higher education on a national basis, since secondary school-leaving exams are not externally moderated. Candidates express preferences for programme areas and institutions and are directed to these depending on their performance in the exams and the places available. The 1997 Education 2000 Act includes provision for abolishing general exams from 2000 in parallel with an increase in the number of higher education places. Entry will then be based on marks in the school-leaving exams and in aptitude tests.

In Portugal, a national exam for entry to higher education was introduced in 1989 as a way of widening access by relaxing the relationship between the area of study at secondary school and higher education programmes. It also provided a common basis for assessing prospective students in the absence of an externally-moderated exam at the end of secondary education. However, this exam was abolished in 1993 and, since 1996, entry has been based on a points system taking into account a candidate's results in the newly-introduced national exams at the end of secondary school and their grades at secondary school.

In Spain, the government-controlled *prueba de acceso* (national entrance exam) introduced in 1974, has been retained but the pressure of the increased demand for higher education places has meant that exams intended as a test of maturity and readiness to study have become a vehicle for ranking candidates. As a result, efforts have been made to improve the reliability, quality and objectivity of marking by requiring that this should only be done by specialised teachers, randomly assigned. Since 1986, preference has been given to applicants that have passed their entrance exam in the first session in June and to those choosing study options related to their secondary education or opting for universities in their vicinity.

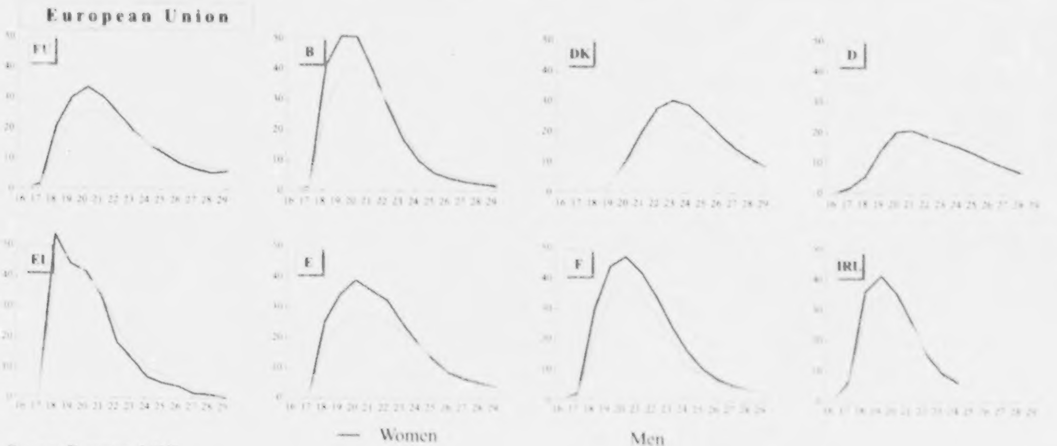
3.2. WIDENING ACCESS

Despite the high demand and competition for places in higher education, most countries introduced reforms aimed at widening access to higher education during the period studied. These focused particularly on improving access to both non-university and university higher education for mature-age candidates, especially those with non-traditional qualifications and school-leavers with vocational qualifications. In Ireland, the State rather than the full-time undergraduate student has been paying tuition fees charged by institutions since 1995/96. This is seen as an important factor in widening access to higher education, although tuition fees are still charged for part-time courses and registration fees on all full-time courses.

3.2.1. ACCESS FOR MATURE-AGE STUDENTS WITHOUT TRADITIONAL QUALIFICATIONS

The proportion of mature-age applicants for higher education varies considerably from country to country, as shown by Figure 3.1 (European Commission, Eurydice, Eurostat, 2000, p. 114). Most countries have made changes aimed at increasing the participation of adults without traditional entry qualifications in higher education during the 1980s and 1990s, though not all have succeeded.

Figure 3.1: Participation rates in tertiary education (ISCED 5, 6, 7), by age and by gender, as a percentage, 1996/97

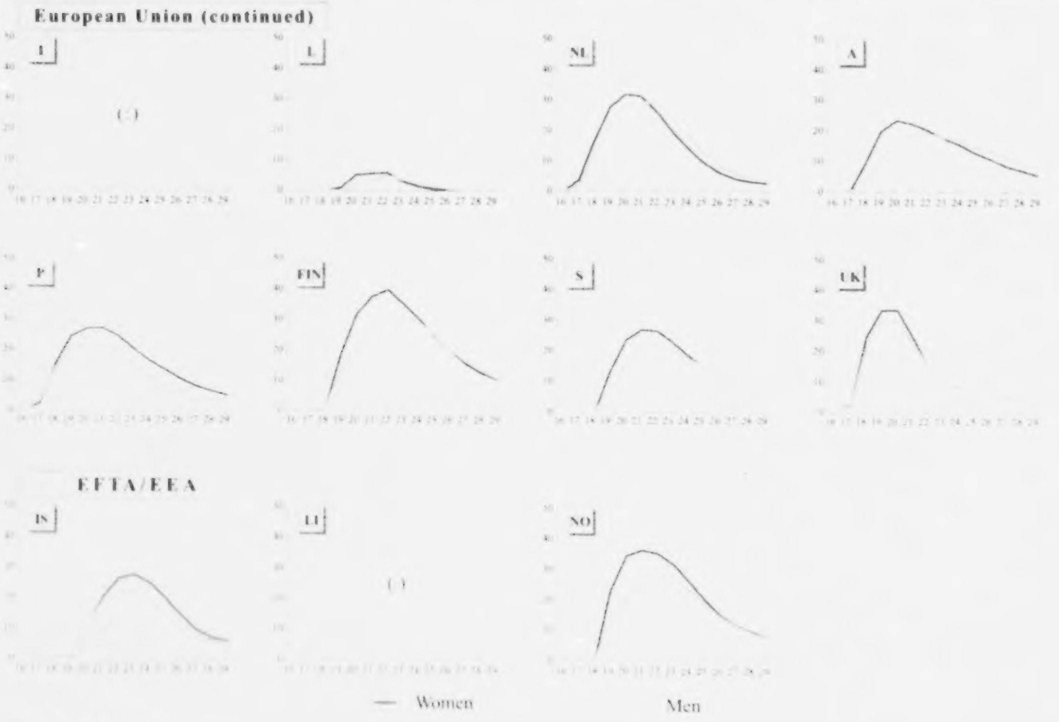


Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes
Germany: The '29-year-olds' category includes people aged 29 and over.
Ireland: The '25-year-olds' category includes people aged 25 and over.

Explanatory note
Participation rates are calculated separately for men and women.

Figure 3.1 (continued): Participation rates in tertiary education (ISCED 5, 6, 7), by age and by gender, as a percentage, 1996/97



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional note

Iceland: Only full-time students are included.

Explanatory note

Participation rates are calculated separately for men and women.

As Table 3.3 shows, alternative access routes for adults without traditional school-leaving qualifications were offered in 13 of the countries studied in 1980/81. By 1996/97, all countries except Italy and Luxembourg had introduced some form of access route for mature-age students, with the accreditation of prior experience as well as open university and other forms of distance learning being the most widespread methods of accepting this group of students into higher education.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Table 3.3: Routes to higher education for mature-age entrants without traditional qualifications in 1980/81 and in 1996/97

		B fr	B nl	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO
Accrediation of prior occupational/study experience	1980/81			●											●[1]	●		●		●
	1996/97	●		●	●		●[2]	●	●			●			●	●		●		●
Quotas of places	1980/81			●										●	●	●				●[3]
	1996/97			●			●		●					●	●	●				
Special entry exam	1980/81	●[4]			●		●	●				●	●	●		●				
	1996/97	●		●	●		●	●				●	●	●		●			●	
Access courses	1980/81			●			●	●									●[5]			
	1996/97			●			●	●	●							●	●			
Flexible programmes/open university/distance learning	1980/81						●	●								●	●			
	1996/97		●	●	●	●	●	●	●			●	●		●	●	●	●		

Source: Eurydice

[1] Universities only
[2] Vocationally oriented courses only
[3] Non-university sector only
[4] A special entry exam was already in operation in Belgium in a very limited way before 1980
[5] United Kingdom except Scotland

3.2.1.1. Accreditation of prior experience

In 1996/97, the accreditation of relevant previous experience was possible for older applicants, both for vocationally-oriented courses and academic university courses, in 12 out of the 18 participating countries. In 1980/81, this possibility had been offered by only 5 countries. In the French Community of Belgium, adults without a secondary school-leaving certificate have been able to enter higher education if they could prove they have work experience in the area they wish to study and after assessment by the higher education institution. Very few students however enter via this route. Since 1990, some German *Länder* have been piloting a trial registration arrangement which allows applicants with relevant occupational experience to register for a maximum of four semesters at a higher education institution with the possibility of conversion into a conventional registration on the basis of study progress.

The *LOGSE* established the possibility for students aged 20 or over to access non-university vocationally-oriented courses offered by the Spanish higher education system via a special test. Exemption from this test can be granted on the basis of sufficient professional experience. In France, since 1985, entry to a particular university course has been possible based on a dossier proving relevant occupational experience in the study area and, from 1993, occupational skills can be accredited and will count towards higher education diplomas, allowing those coming from apprenticeships to enter higher education. Although the priority in Ireland is to improve access for disadvantaged students, since 1995, provision has been made to enable those over 23 to be admitted to higher education on the basis of their prior experience if they are judged likely to successfully complete their course.

In Denmark, Finland, Sweden, Iceland and Norway, occupational experience and prior studies were taken into account for entry to higher education long before 1980. In Denmark, students with vocational qualifications are eligible for admission to short cycle higher education only. Promoting participation in higher education amongst all citizens has been one of the main characteristics of the Swedish education system. As early as 1969, Sweden introduced special admission regulations increasing the opportunities for adults with work experience to enter higher education. Those aged 25 or over, who have been employed for at least five years and fulfil certain specific requirements, have since been eligible to pursue higher education studies. In Finland, work experience has been taken into account at polytechnics since their establishment in 1991, while prior studies have always been taken into account by universities. In the United Kingdom, the introduction of and arrangements for accreditation of prior learning (APL) vary from institution to institution. However, the former Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC), now the Quality Assurance Agency, published guidelines on the quality assurance of credit-based learning in1995. A survey of practice carried out by UCAS in 1996 found that the assessment and accreditation of prior learning were used in a wide range of programmes within higher education, at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels. In Scotland, it has been possible to take prior study and work experience into account for modular course credits since 1990 through the Scottish Credit Framework.

3.2.1.2. Quota of places

Higher education institutions may also reserve a certain proportion of places for older applicants. In Denmark since 1977, a quota of study places has been reserved, among others, for those without the traditional school-leaving examinations. Furthermore, since 1990, all those interested and not registered at another higher education institution have been able to enrol in Danish open university programmes. In Greece, whenever the recently introduced open-choice study programmes are over-subscribed, priority will be given to candidates aged between 23 and 45 without higher education qualifications. In Ireland, some higher education institutions have reserved a percentage of places on some courses for adult applicants, while in Finland in 1995, the Government set the goal that, by the year 2000, around one quarter of all new entrants should be mature-age students. Spanish universities and Portuguese higher education institutions reserve a certain number of places for students aged 25 or over and who have passed the special access test.

3.2.1.3. Special entry exam

A number of countries run special entry exams which allow mature-age candidates to obtain an equivalent qualification to the secondary school-leaving exam which permits them to enter higher education. These are usually traditional, formal academic examinations which provide an entry route for relatively few. Such exams are offered in Denmark, Germany, Spain, France, and Austria. In Denmark, there is the 1-1½-year special entrance examination course for the engineering colleges and the ½-1-year supplementary examination courses at upper secondary level, which should allow students to attain the level of knowledge in the subject(s) relevant to their chosen study programme. In Spain, to be admitted to the test of maturity and skills, applicants for vocationally-oriented courses must be aged 20 or over and, for university courses, 25 or over. In France, there is the *DAEU, diplôme d'accès aux études universtaires*, and, in Austria, the study entitlement exam. In Portugal, the *ad-hoc* exam for adults aged 25 or more grants access to higher education without being considered equivalent to secondary education.

Nearly all German *Länder* have, since 1980, offered applicants with exceptionally high professional qualifications the possibility of entering higher education via a special exam. In the Netherlands, prospective applicants over 20 who do not meet the formal entry requirements may be exempted from these through an alternative higher education entry procedure, the *colloquium doctum*. Since 1992, other entrance procedures (aptitude test or test to determine suitability for a specific level of study, interview) are also available to mature-age students.

In Sweden, the university aptitude test had already been specifically designed for this special group of applicants in 1969 and the score obtained in the test as well as work experience could qualify for university studies. Designed originally for specific courses only, it was extended during the 1970s to all university courses and since 1991, all applicants have had the right to sit this test. In Finland, at the end of upper secondary school, a national matriculation exam is offered to those (secondary school-leavers and other adults) wishing to enter higher education. There have been few changes to these exams during the period studied, although in 1994 in France, the special university entrance exam (*ESEU*), aimed at those over 20 who had not studied for at least two years, was replaced by a one-year course leading to the *DAEU*. This gives the same right of entry to any university as the *baccalauréat*. In 1990, the *LOGSE* introduced the possibility of accessing the Spanish higher education system via a special test for students aged 20 or over.

3.2.1.4. Access courses

Access courses, higher or further education courses which prepare adult students for entry to often related higher education courses, were offered in six countries in 1996/97, of which four had already offered such courses back in 1980/81. In Ireland, courses designed to help adult returners have been offered on a part-time evening and part-time day basis by some higher education institutions such as the National College of Ireland, formerly the National College of Industrial Relations, and the Dublin Institute of Technology since the early 1990s. Since 1995, the Irish Higher Education Links Scheme has provided access to designated higher education courses for a limited number of mature-age students. In the United Kingdom (except Scotland), since 1978, special courses run by further education institutions prepare many mature-age students without traditional qualifications for higher education and sometimes guarantee access to particular courses on successful completion. The growth of these so-called Access courses has been rapid. There were six courses in 1979 and 130 in 1984. By 1996, the total number of recognised courses registered by the then Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC) for England, Wales and Northern Ireland was nearly 1,200. In Scotland, since 1988, the Scottish Wider Access Programme has promoted vocationally-oriented higher education to adults without the traditional entry requirements through cooperation between higher education and further education institutions in running access courses. At the beginning of the 1990s, a foundation year in science and technology was introduced in Sweden. The aim was to widen the base for recruitment. This basic year was also open to adult students and from 1995/96 these students could receive special study support. In Denmark, such courses had been established before the period under consideration.

3.2.1.5. Flexible programmes/open university/distance learning

Part-time higher education courses or courses based on accredited modules have been introduced in many countries to fit in with the work or family obligations faced by adults. These are discussed in detail in Chapter 5: Curriculum and Teaching. Since 1989, Danish institutions offering higher education courses have been able to enrol adult students on single modules of such courses for a small fee. In Greece, open-choice study programmes were introduced in 1997 as an alternative to the over-subscribed conventional programmes to help open up higher education to adults. Factors such as periods of unemployment, age and the number of years spent in post-secondary education are taken into account for entry alongside the usual secondary certificate or its equivalent. In France, the *formations en alternance* (sandwich courses) where periods of study alternate with periods of work have become more and more common in vocational programmes during the period studied. Both Ireland (in the early 1990s) and the United Kingdom have introduced modular course structures allowing students the flexibility to choose units from different subject areas. Although introduced in the 1970s these courses have been more widely available since the early 1990s in the United Kingdom, when the decision to introduce modular course structures was taken by the institutions.

Open universities using distance learning methods to allow students to study part-time from home have been established by a number of countries during the period studied. These provide an important access route to higher education for mature-age students since they offer flexible courses at a variety of levels and often accept students with few conventional qualifications. The Belgian Flemish Community set up an open university in 1995, but entry to degree-level courses requires the secondary school certificate. Denmark's first open university programmes were introduced in 1982 on an experimental basis and were extended to other universities and higher education institutions in 1990. Spain established the National Distance Learning University (*UNED*) in 1972 to provide university education for those unable to study at a conventional university for logistical or geographical reasons, but it also offers shorter non-degree courses for those without prior qualifications as well as university access courses. The setting up of France's National Centre for Distance Learning (*CNED*) and the Finnish, Swedish and United Kingdom open universities pre-dated this study but the numbers of students have grown considerably during the period under review (e.g. the number of OU students in Scotland has doubled since 1980/81). In Sweden, universities and university colleges are responsible for the management and design of the course offer in distance learning. There is extensive provision of open university instruction in Finland and student numbers have grown considerably during the 1990s. It is however not possible to obtain a degree through the open university and students who wish to do so must gain entrance to a regular university programme. The Dutch Open University was opened in 1984 to provide second-chance education to adults. In Iceland, access to teacher training has been facilitated for adults from remote areas by the use of distance learning techniques since 1993.

3.2.2. ACCESS FOR APPLICANTS WITH VOCATIONAL SCHOOL-LEAVING QUALIFICATIONS

During the period considered access to higher education courses was widened in a number of countries for students with vocational school-leaving qualifications, despite their original aim of preparing students to enter the labour market. In the Belgian French Community since 1993/94, the whole of the higher education sector, including both universities and the non-university *Hautes écoles*, was open to anybody with a secondary school certificate or its equivalent. Holders of a vocational higher secondary education certificate (*CESS - certificat d'enseignement secondaire supérieur*) were now eligible for admission to short-type higher education. Admission to long-type higher education was however made subject to passing an exam to obtain the certificate of aptitude to gain entry to higher education (*DAES - diplôme d'aptitude à accéder à l'enseignement supérieur*), a qualification no longer required for applicants from other branches of secondary education. In Germany, since 1990, the desire to upgrade the status of vocational secondary education has led to the strategy of granting access to higher education to candidates from vocational secondary schools. In France, since the introduction of the *baccalauréat professionnel* (vocational secondary school-leaving certificate) in 1986, holders of this qualification have been granted the right to enter open-access higher education, a right previously granted to holders of the *baccalauréat technologique* (technical secondary school-leaving certificate). Despite this reform the majority of university students are still recruited among holders of the *baccalauréat général* (general secondary school-leaving certificate). In Austria, access to university was opened to those with a vocational secondary school-leaving certificate (*Berufsreifeprüfung*) in 1997. General National Vocational Qualifications (GNVQs) are part of the framework of qualifications for England, Wales and Northern Ireland which were introduced in response to the Government White Paper *Education and Training for the 21st Century* (May 1991). GNVQs have been designed as a preparation for employment either directly, or through higher education. In Finland, from 1991, general eligibility to higher education was extended to students with post-secondary level vocational qualifications. During the period studied, general eligibility for higher education in Denmark was gradually extended by granting access to all holders of vocationally oriented general upper secondary commercial (*HHX*) and technical (*HTX*) qualifications. In Spain, holders of vocational school-leaving certificates have been granted access to short-course university studies at *Escuelas Universitarias* since 1975/76. Today a minimum of 30% of study places on these courses is reserved for students with vocational secondary qualifications.

3.3. MEASURES TO REDUCE WASTAGE

In an effort to increase efficiency, reforms relating to the higher education admissions procedures were accompanied in most European countries by measures aimed at improving the completion rate of higher education courses. Efforts were focused on reducing both the non-completion rate and the time taken by students to complete their higher education courses successfully.

Dropout from specific courses is not necessarily a good measure of non-completion of higher education, as students may choose to repeat the year, re-sit their exams or transfer to another course which they subsequently complete successfully. Since few countries, however, are able to monitor students throughout their higher education careers, alternative figures are scarce. Taking the number of students who do not complete a particular course in the standard time as a measure of dropout, gives a somewhat inflated dropout rate in the open-entry systems found in Belgium or at French universities where many students fail their end of year exams. Although an average of 50 percent of Belgian university students fail their first year exams, a study carried out by the French Community Directorate for Higher Education and Scientific Research[1] showed that three quarters of those who began their higher education studies finished by obtaining a qualification. In the French Community of Belgium, university entry, except for civil engineering, is open to anyone with a certificate of secondary education. The decrees of 1994 (for the universities) and of 1995 (for the *Hautes ecoles*) offer students the option of spreading the first year's study programme across two academic years. Furthermore, a system of tutoring by more advanced students and increased supervision during the first year has been put in place by a number of institutions in an effort to reduce failure levels in the first year exams. Such a system has also been successfully introduced in France in recent years with advanced students (*tuteurs*) supporting and guiding first year students. In other countries (i.e. Sweden and Finland), the introduction of modular programmes, where students themselves decide the combination of courses they will study and the pace at which they progress, makes estimation of the level of non-completion difficult.

Encouraging students to progress quickly through their higher education courses has been seen by many countries as a way of optimising the use of the higher education system in the face of high demand. In some countries such as Germany and Greece, the academic tradition does not require university students to finish their studies within a set time-frame, but gives them the freedom to decide when to sit their qualifying examinations. This has in the past led to a proportion of inactive students who are enrolled but do not attend classes or sit examinations. To reduce the number of such students, during the period under review, countries have introduced a limit to the number of years a student may enrol. The effect of the 1998 German Higher Education Framework Act in reducing the standard period of study has already been mentioned. Similarly the introduction of trial examinations is intended to encourage students to take their final examinations earlier. As stipulated in the recent Education 2000 Act, Greece will limit study periods from the year 2000. Spain has put restrictions on the number of times a student can resit his or her exams since 1983. In Italy, the reduction of course length and of the very high number of students not graduating in the standard time (*fuori corso*) are the main goals of the 1997 reform now being implemented.

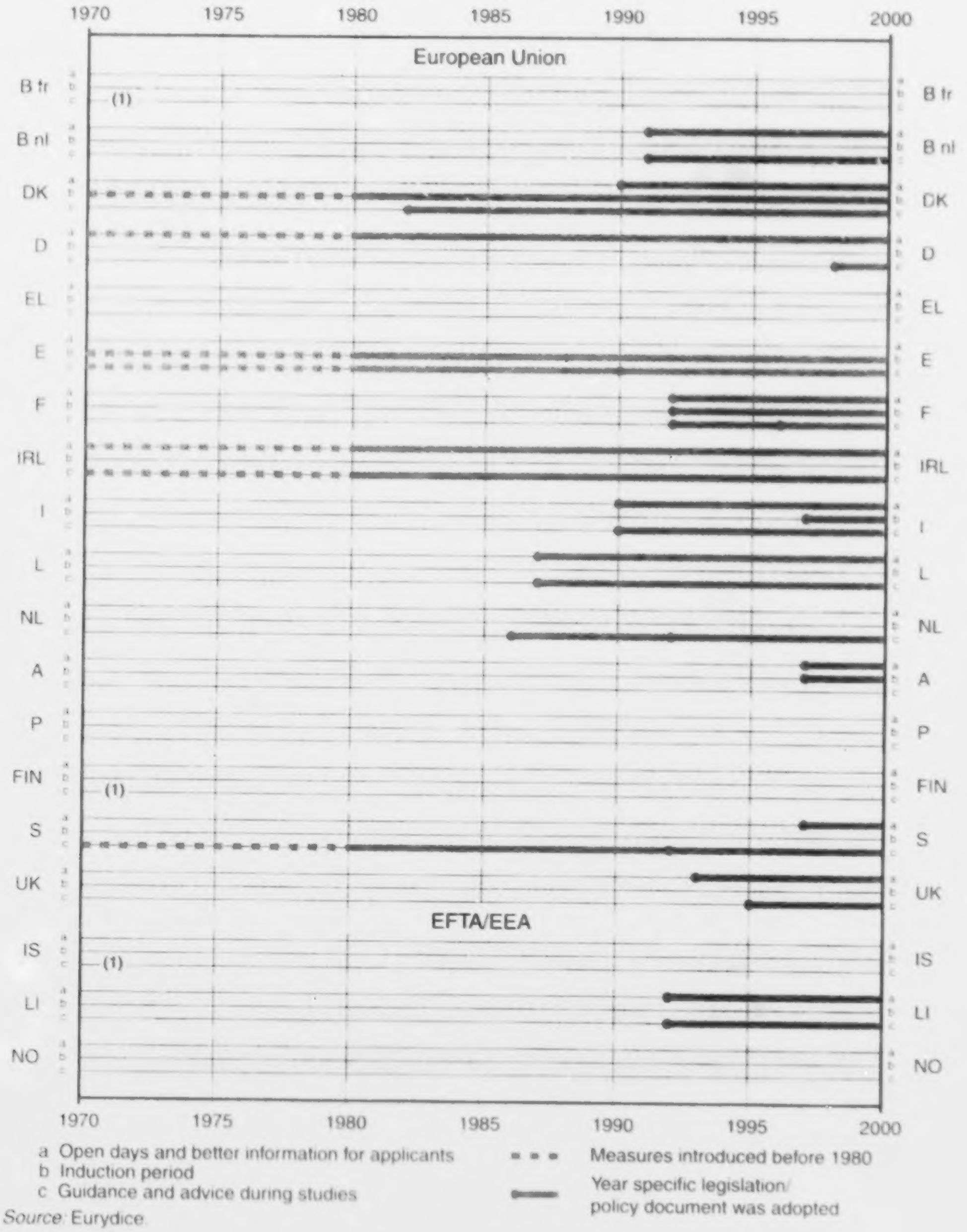
Countries keen to improve the completion rate introduced a number of relevant measures both at institutional and national level. These initiatives focused on improving the information and guidance available to students when choosing their higher education courses. They also included the provision of advice to students during their studies, the introduction of shorter or modular courses, financial incentives to institutions and students. The majority of these measures were implemented during the 1990s.

---

[1] Ongoing study of the Directorate General for Higher Education and Scientific Research with the support of the Universite Catholique de Louvain (*UCL*) and the Universite Libre de Bruxelles (*ULB*).

Table 3.4: Measures to improve the rate of completion of higher education courses since 1980

Improved information and guidance



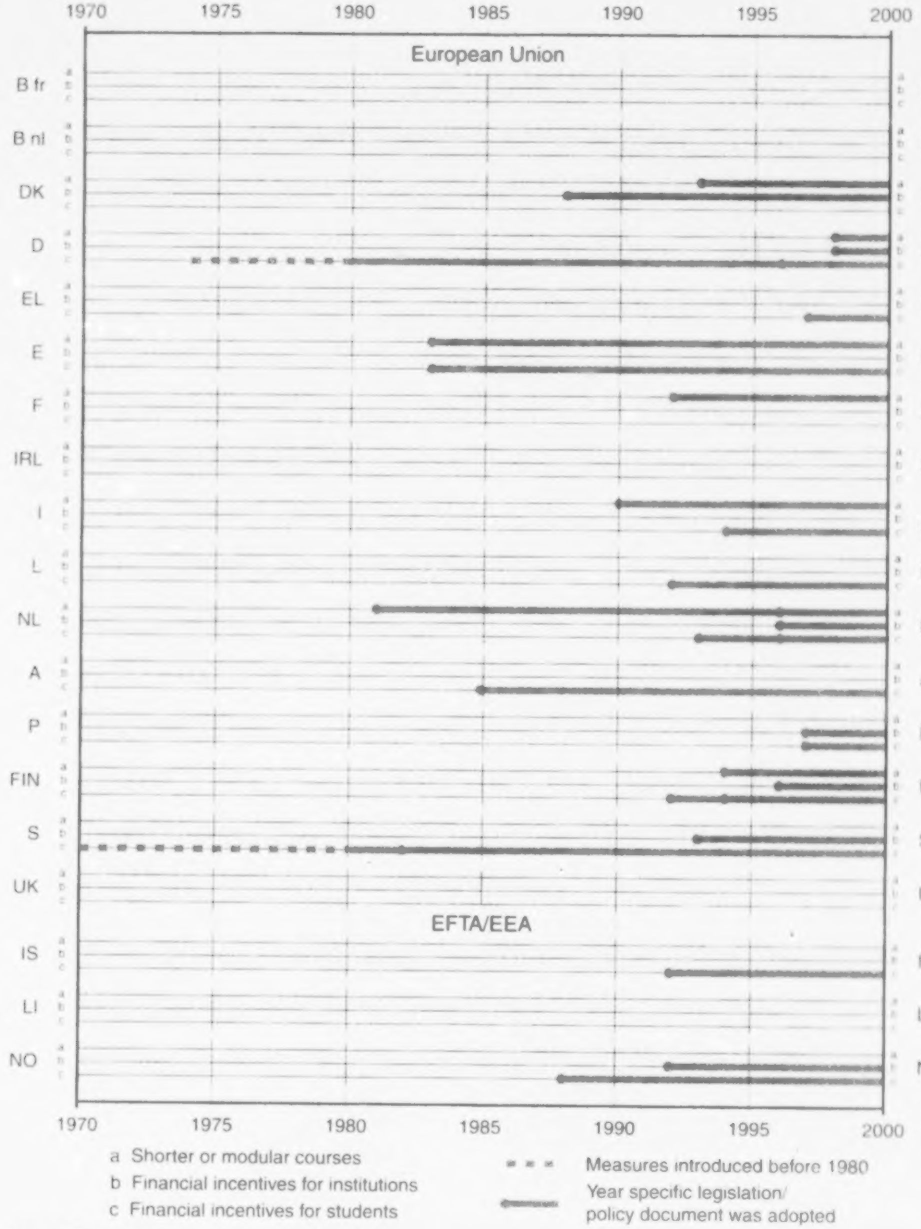
Source: Eurydice.

(1) **Belgium (B fr), Finland, United Kingdom** and **Iceland**	Guidance and advice to students have been continuously improved during the period considered, but this cannot be related to one specific legislation or policy document.
Germany	Since the amendment of the 1998 Higher Education Framework Act, higher education institutions have to reinforce guidance and advice during studies.
Spain	The 1990 *LOGSE* strengthened guidance and advice in the non-university sector.
United Kingdom	Open days, and guidance and advice have been avaible to students on a non-formalised basis since before 1980.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Table 3.4: Measures to improve the rate of completion of higher education courses since 1980 (continued)

Others measures



Source: Eurydice.

3.3.1. INFORMATION AND GUIDANCE

Table 3.4 shows that, during the period under review, many countries focused their efforts on improving information for prospective students, particularly on admission requirements and assessment procedures. The aim was to ensure that students had a clear idea of the content of their chosen course and the standards required to succeed in it. In the majority of countries, changes or improvements to the system were made during the 1990s. The most common changes involved organising open days at higher education institutions and improving the flow of information and other links between schools and higher education institutions. France, Italy and Austria instituted a pre-study induction period for future students. Guidance and advice for students was a priority with many institutions introducing or reinforcing mentoring, tutoring and counselling systems for new entrants.

Improvements to the information and guidance available to students were a particular focus in countries with less selective higher education admission systems as a means of reducing failure during the first few years of study. In the French Community of Belgium, efforts to reduce failure included pairing first year students with students from the third or fourth year and offering remedial classes in the main subjects at the beginning of the course. The Higher Education Framework Act which was passed in 1998 in Germany included measures to intensify academic counselling by higher education institutions and the introduction of trial examinations. A major aim of the 1992/93 reforms to the first and second cycles of university education in France was the reduction of wastage through better guidance and supervision of students. The information provided by universities was improved to include information on assessment procedures, and links with secondary schools were reinforced. Implementation was the responsibility of the institutions and included information sessions and exhibitions on certain careers in schools and open days at universities. In addition, an induction period of several weeks is offered to new university entrants in July and a *tutorat* (mentoring system) was introduced where more advanced students help first-year students with problems during their studies. The importance of support and guidance as well as the improvement of study conditions was re-emphasised by the recommendations of the 1996 Fauroux Commission.

In Italy, the 1990 Law on the reorganisation of university teaching required universities to provide guidance for prospective students and tutoring throughout their studies. Implementation however remained uneven. The 1997 Ministerial Decree introduced a formal pre-enrolment system whereby pupils intending to apply to a particular university make an application in the autumn of their final year at school. They are then offered induction sessions providing information on course content and teaching methods as well as on the support available. These sessions put students in a position to assess their suitability for their chosen course. Austria's 1997 University Studies Act introduced a study entry phase which is intended to provide students with as clear a picture as possible of study requirements, statistics on study success and employment opportunities, and profiles of graduates.

Countries with a more selective admission system also found it necessary to improve information and guidance for students. In Ireland and the United Kingdom, university students are usually assigned to a personal tutor who has the task of following their academic progress and helping them with any problems that may arise. In an effort to standardise and improve the guidance offered by different institutions, the United Kingdom Higher Education Quality Council issued guidelines in 1995 to provide a comparable framework for guidance and learner support. These emphasised the fact that guidance should be learner-centred, confidential, impartial, equitable and accessible. In Sweden, the 1993 Higher Education Ordinance re-emphasised students' right of access to course counsellors and careers guidance and required institutions to ensure that prospective students are able to obtain all necessary information about the institution of their choice.

3.3.2. INTRODUCTION OF SHORTER OR MODULAR COURSES

As explained in Chapter 5: Curriculum and Teaching, a number of countries made changes to the structure of courses in order to improve completion rates. These included the introduction of shorter courses with intermediate levels of qualification and the creation of modular or credit-based systems to validate the academic achievements of students changing programmes. Denmark (1993) and Finland (1994-97) introduced a three-year Bachelor's degree and Germany will be introducing such degrees from 1998. The 1998 German Higher Education Framework Act allows for the reduction of the standard period of study for higher education courses and the introduction of an intermediate examination for all courses lasting over four years. In Spain, the reform introduced by the *Ley Organica* in 1983 was intended to improve success rates at universities. It initiated shorter one-cycle courses of three years leading to a *diplomado* which have since been shown to have much higher and constanty improving completion rates and lower dropout rates compared to the four or five-year two-cycle *licenciado* courses. In France, the 1992/93 reform of university courses included the organisation of a first cycle, leading to the *DEUG* diploma, into modules which gave students the possibility of changing course at the end of the first semester or year and of attaining an initial qualification after two years. In Italy, the 1990 reform introduced three levels of university programmes, beginning with three-year (exceptionally two-year) *diploma* courses and was motivated partly by the desire to reduce the dropout rate. The 1997 didactic reform makes the three-year first level cycle a prerequisite for advancement to the second level. In the Netherlands, the implementation of the 1981 Two-Phase Structure Act led to a reduction in the nominal length of most university courses to four years, while the 1996 Higher Education and Research Plan (*HOOP*) gave universities the opportunity to offer three year Bachelor's degrees.

3.3.3. FINANCIAL INCENTIVES FOR INSTITUTIONS

The different systems for financing institutions have been discussed in Chapter 2: Management, Finance and Control. In the Netherlands and Finland, the financing of institutions has been increasingly tightly linked to their quality and output in terms of the number of students graduating. Denmark, since the 1994 budget reform, bases its funding on the number of examinations passed, while Sweden links its funding to the number of students and their study attainments.

In the Netherlands, lower funding is given for students who do not obtain a degree. Furthermore, the 1996 Act on the quality and feasibility of study provided financial incentives for institutions to improve the quality of their education and thereby reduce wastage. It also established guidelines for the self-assessment of institutions. In Portugal, the 1997 Framework Act on Higher Education Finance fixed the maximum number of years a student may be counted when determining the amount of funding made available to an institution. This serves as an incentive to move students through the system rapidly, in order to keep the number of eligible students (*estudante elegivel*) high. In Sweden, funds are reduced if results are unsatisfactory. In Finland, a new funding system based on target numbers of Master's and doctoral degrees will be implemented by the year 2003. Furthermore, in Finland since the mid-1990s, high quality university teaching has been among the indicators used by the Ministry for allocating performance-based funding to universities while the non-university polytechnics are funded partly on the number of students graduating within the standard course time. In Norway, since 1992, institutions have been awarded a part of their funding on the basis of the average number of weighted credits obtained by their students and additional special funds are allocated on the basis of the number of those graduating with higher degrees.

3.3.4. FINANCIAL INCENTIVES FOR STUDENTS

In many countries, government financial support for students has been made more dependant on successful progress in their studies since 1980, though most such changes took place during the 1990s. The changes often require students both to pass examinations and to finish their studies within a given period.

In the Netherlands, there have been progressive moves towards more performance-related funding during the study period. Since 1996, financial aid to students has taken the form of a *prestatiebeurs*, a conditional loan, which need not be repaid if students pass their exams and graduate within six years. Since 1997, Portugal has been awarding *bolsas de mérito* (merit grants) to the best students in each institution.

Other countries linked aid in the next year to performance in previous years, usually allowing students to repeat one year or semester. The French Community of Belgium and Sweden were already familar with such systems before 1980, while other countries introduced them during the period under review: Spain (1983), Austria (1985/86), Finland (1992) and Iceland (1992).

A number of countries introduced additional financial rewards to students who obtain good exam results or who complete their course within the standard study period. German students who graduate within the standard period of study with good results have had part of their loan waived since 1974. In Luxembourg, special additional aid has been given to students since 1992, on successful and timely completion of the first study cycle. In Greece, Spain, and Finland (in certain institutions), students may be given financial rewards for outstanding results or for graduating in the minimum time.

All countries imposed some sort of time limit for state financial aid to undergraduate students. A number of countries introduced limits to the period during which students can obtain such aid. In 1988, Denmark introduced a voucher system allowing students to draw financial support for a fixed maximum period, although students are free to interrupt their studies for a certain time and to resume them later without losing their funding. Since 1996, financial aid for German students under *BAföG* (Federal Training Assistance Act) has been available up to the standard period of study. For studies beyond this period students can take out interest-bearing loans. The Netherlands limited grant aid to a maximum of four years in 1996. In 1997, the maximum period for which Portuguese students could draw financial aid was limited to the length of the course plus two years, as long as they could prove a minimum level of academic achievement in the previous year. In Finland, since 1994, financial aid for students has been limited to a total of 55 months for Master's degree courses. Sweden reduced the maximum period for financial aid from eight to six years in 1982.

3.4. OVERVIEW OF REFORMS

The evidence of this study is that, since 1980, access to higher education has improved in most participating countries for school-leavers with either general or vocational qualifications and for adults with non-traditional qualifications. These improvements in access depended primarily on the ability of the national higher education system to expand in pace with the increasing demand for higher education during the 1980s and early 1990s. There have been relatively few changes both in the selectivity at entry of the different systems and in the selection criteria applied. However, where changes took place they contributed to improving access to higher education for school-leavers with vocational qualifications and mature-age students.

In many countries, additional study places were primarily created on vocationally-oriented courses often at non-university institutions which had recently been created or upgraded to higher education. These courses, many of which were created to respond to the needs of the labour market, sometimes suffered from a lower status and were not always as popular as the traditional university courses. On the other hand, demand for courses leading to the highest status professional qualifications (e.g. human and veterinary medicine, dentistry, engineering, architecture) increased in all countries. Most countries had already limited the number of places on such expensive, practically-based courses before 1980 on the basis of the capacity of the institutions and sometimes also because of government-determined target numbers based on labour market needs. During the period in question, even countries with traditions of open access to higher education such as Belgium, Germany, and Italy began to impose admissions limits on these courses. However, it should be noted that the imposition of limits tends to increase the status and desirability of a course, thereby making an already selective course even more selective.

For more detailed information on this subject see the publication of the European Commission, Eurydice, *Key Topics in Education, Volume I, Financial Support for Students in Higher Education in Europe*, 1999.

In Denmark and Norway, increases in the number of higher education places and changes in their deployment have made their higher education systems less selective overall since 1980. In contrast, increases in the number of higher education places offered in Greece and Spain were not sufficient to meet demand, with the result that the selectivity of the system in these countries has increased during the study period. In Greece, this trend has been reversed, at least since 1996, as the number of places in higher education has increased sufficiently due to the establishment of new departments and the introduction of the open-choice study programmes. In Portugal the number of additional study places has increased by 34% during the last four years and in some disciplines, e.g. technology, not all places are being taken up.

In summary, in the majority of countries, whether traditionally highly selective or open access, no fundamental change to the basic entry philosophy has been applied. Entry to the expensive, high status professional courses such as medicine, dentistry, architecture and engineering is limited by governments either directly or through target-led steering and has become increasingly selective. At the same time, higher education capacity has been expanded in professional and vocationally-oriented courses and, also in less costly courses in social sciences and literature. Entry to these courses has tended to become less selective as demand is more fully met. At the same time, this rapid expansion has raised questions in many countries about the quality of the education provided. The introduction of quality control and evaluation procedures is discussed in Chapter 2: Management, Finance and Control.

Most countries have introduced initiatives aimed at helping those without general secondary school-leaving qualifications to enter higher education by taking into account their prior experience or vocational qualifications. This move was supported by offering more flexible study programmes which can be combined with the demands of the workplace or family life. However, it appears that, in the majority of countries, such access is mainly to vocationally-oriented courses. Widening access to vocationally-qualified school-leavers and adults with non-traditional qualifications has not only helped to fill places on less popular courses but also satisfied the principles of social justice and encouraged life-long learning. The introduction of more flexible study arrangements for mainstream higher education programmes is discussed in Chapter 5: Curriculum and Teaching. These initiatives are particularly significant in easing access to programmes offered by the open universities which have proved popular with many adults and have often successfully provided a route into full-time higher education.

The study suggests that attempts to widen access to adults have been more recent and less successful in the relatively open university systems in Belgium, Germany, France, Italy and Austria than in the Nordic countries, where encouraging adult continuing education has been an important goal since the early 1980s or even before.

In line with the requirement in many countries to improve the efficiency of their higher education systems, most countries have recently introduced or reinforced initiatives aimed at increasing student completion rates. A major focus has been the improvement of information for prospective students and the provision of continuing support and guidance during their studies. Countries with a tradition of open access were particularly likely to have launched initiatives of this sort during the 1990s. Other measures included changes in course structures, mainly the shortening of courses or the introduction of intermediate qualifications. The Nordic countries and the Netherlands favoured the system of financial incentives for institutions and students to increase completion rates.

CHAPTER 4: FINANCIAL AID TO STUDENTS

This chapter is devoted to reforms that have affected the systems of financial support for students who are engaged in studies leading to a first degree. As a recent study on this subject showed, (European Commission, Eurydice European Unit, 1999) significant variations exist between countries, both in the nature and number of components of the support system. In some countries, support is given to the students' parents in the form of family allowances and/or tax reductions. Reforms of these types of support are not dealt with here. Likewise, where a financial contribution is required of students upon registration, reductions or exemptions are often granted under certain conditions. Chapter 2: Management, Finance and Control contains some information on the question of students' personal contributions to the finance of institutions. Some information about financial incentives for course completion is also given in Chapter 3: Access and Wastage. Of the various forms of financial support in operation, this chapter only deals with changes to the cash allowances paid directly to students in the form of grants and/or loans, together with measures relating to services, such as transport, food and accommodation. For a more in-depth discussion of the subject, the reader is referred to the study mentioned above.

4.1. CASH BENEFITS IN THE FORM OF GRANTS AND/OR LOANS

Since 1980, few major reforms have been undertaken with regard to grants and loans. The majority of countries that have had a tradition of offering support mainly or wholly in grant form (Belgium, Greece, Spain, France, Ireland, Italy, Austria and Portugal) have maintained this type of support. Similarly, those that have for a long time combined grants and loans (Denmark, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Finland, Sweden, Liechtenstein and Norway), or have awarded only loans (Iceland), are continuing in that direction. In Germany, the grant component was abolished in 1983 and reintroduced in a 50%-grant - 50% loan combined system in 1990. Among the countries in the first group, some introduced loans during the period under consideration, but without great success. In France and Italy, the possibility of loans guaranteed by the State was introduced in 1991 but loans were not taken up to any great extent. In Greece, loans were introduced in 1991 but abolished in 1995. Only the United Kingdom seems to have succeeded in this area, having put a loan system in place which has progressively replaced the grant system. From 1999/2000, means-tested maintenance grants will be replaced by maintenance loans. Grants are due to be phased out by 1999/2000. Lastly, in Portugal, the Framework Act on Higher Education Finance of 1997 introducing a state benefit in the form of a low-interest loan has yet to be implemented. Only a few selective emergency loans have been awarded by the social services departments.

Within the existing system, reforms have primarily affected the size and number of means-tested grants, or the proportion of the grant component compared to the loan; the interest rates or the loan repayment conditions; how support is linked to academic success and, finally, the limits set for the duration of the award. Belgium, Greece, Spain, Luxembourg and Liechtenstein have experienced a relatively stable period as regards financial support to students during the last twenty years. In contrast, the Netherlands and the Nordic countries have seen a large number of reforms.

Table 4.1: Types and dates of reforms to grant and/or loan systems between 1980 and 1997

	Size of grants	Grant component to loan component	Degree of dependence on parents' and/or spouse's income	Interest rate charged to the student	Repayment conditions (linked to income or loan period)	Link with academic progress	Time limit to the benefit
	European Union						
B fr	✘	✘	✘	✘	✘	✘	✘
B nl	↗ 83	(-)	✘	(-)	(-)	✘	✘
DK	↗ 88	↗ 88	↘ 80, 86, 96	↘ 82, 88	82	↗ 88, 96	88
D	✘	↘ 83, ↗ 90	✘	✘	✘	↗ 96	✘
EL	✘	(-)	✘	(-)	(-)	✘	✘
E	✘	(-)	✘	(-)	(-)	✘	✘
F	↗ 84	(-)	✘	✘	✘	✘	✘
IRL	↗	(-)	✘	(-)	(-)	✘	✘
I	↗ 96	(-)	✘	✘	✘	↗ 94	94
L	✘	✘	✘	92	92	↗ 92	✘
NL	↘ 91, ↗ 92, ↗ >92	↘ 90s	↘ 86, 95	↘ 92	✘	↗ 93	88, 91
A	↗ 92	(-)	✘	(-)	(-)	✘	✘
P	>84	(-)	✘	(-)	(-)	↘ 97	97
FIN	↗ 92	↗ 80s, 92	↘ 92	↗ 92	✘	✘	↘ 92
S	↘ <88, ↗ >88	↘ <89, ↗ >89	↘ 80, 88	↗ 88	89	↗ 80s	✘
UK	↘ 90, 98	↘ <90, 98	↘ 90	(-)	90, 98	✘	✘
	EFTA/EEA						
IS	(-)	(-)	✘	92	82, 92, 97	↗ 82, 92	✘
LI	↗ 85, 87, 92, 96	✘	✘	✘	✘	✘	✘
No	↗ 90s	↘ <90, ↗ >90	↘ 85	↗ 80s, 90s	89	↗ 90s	✘

Source: Eurydice

↘ Decrease ↗ Increase ✘ No reform

(-) Not applicable < Before > After

In the majority of countries, before 1980, grants and/or loans were awarded not only according to a student's income but also according to parents' or spouse's income. Sweden ceased taking parents' income into account as part of its award criteria in 1968 and, in Iceland, this criterion has never existed. Norway took student income as the sole criterion on which to base an award, under its pre-1980 system. In Sweden, the spouse's income has not been taken into consideration for the purposes of awarding support since 1980 and, since 1988, it has no longer been included in the calculation of the sum to be repaid. The same system applies in Norway. In Denmark, reductions in the amounts granted related to spouse's income were abolished under the 1980 legislation and the age limit for taking account of parental income was lowered to 22 years. The age limit again became the subject of reform in 1986 and 1996, when it was reduced first to 20 and then to 18 years of age. In Finland, the spouse's and parents' incomes have not been taken into consideration since 1992. In general, countries that offer grants wholly or principally in conjunction with financial support to families with children who are students have retained the level of parental income as a grant award criterion. However, in the Netherlands in 1986, financial support to families was abolished and the basic grant was made available to all students, without regard to their parents' income. Only the supplementary grant still makes reference to this. In 1995, independence of the award from parents' income was extended to loans. In the United Kingdom, maintenance grants were linked to the economic status of students and their families, while loans were not dependent on parental income. However, under the reforms following on from the Teaching and Higher Education Act 1998, maintenance grants are being replaced by maintenance loans, part of which will be means-tested. Regarding the size of grants, the principle of automatic indexation has been the norm in most countries for some time. Some countries have introduced changes at this level. In the Flemish Community of Belgium, the grant level for the least well-off has been increased annually since 1983 and, since 1998, all grants have been indexed automatically. France undertook a review of the cost of student living in 1984 and the grant was consequently increased. In Italy, the grant was increased substantially in 1996 within the framework of wider financial reforms: the liberalisation of tuition fees, the introduction of a regional tax levied on all students to fund the social security budget, and the creation of a national fund. In Austria, grant levels were raised considerably in 1992 and the maximum amount awarded to certain students in Austria has since been meant to cover the cost of living. In Portugal, the grant level and number of eligible students has regularly been reviewed since 1984.

By contrast, the income ceiling for grant awards was aligned with the cost of living index in the French Community of Belgium in 1993, but no further revision has been undertaken since then and award conditions have been steadily eroded. In the Netherlands, since the radical reform of 1986 in the course of which a universal basic grant was introduced and family allowance was abolished, the value of the basic grant has diminished steadily since 1991 and that of the supplementary grant, which depends on family income, has increased. In the United Kingdom, grant levels also declined between 1985 and 1995.

In some countries, loans form an integral part of the financial support system. They remain interest-free in Germany for students who finish their studies within certain time limits and in Liechtenstein for those who repay the loan within a maximum period of 6 years after finishing their studies. Elsewhere, costs associated with the loan which are borne by students on repayment have been introduced or revised. Denmark reintroduced state loans at a reduced interest rate in 1982 after having abolished them in favour of straightforward guaranteed bank loans in 1975. In 1992, Luxembourg introduced a very favourable interest rate of 2% on student loans. In the Netherlands, interest-free loans have not been available since 1986.

In Sweden and Norway, state subsidies to the interest rate dropped sharply during the 1980s, thereby raising the cost to the student. Since 1992, Finland has applied market rates to bank loans guaranteed by the State. Since 1992, Norway has applied market rates to student loans. In Iceland, student interest charges were introduced in 1992 on top of the indexation of the capital, introduced some years earlier. This rate is officially fixed at a minimum of 3%.

The increase in the burden of loan costs on the student has to be considered with reference to the evolution of the proportion of financial support awarded as a grant or loan. In Denmark and Finland, the size of the grant compared to the loan increased in the 1980s, reducing the cost borne by the student. In Sweden and Norway, after a long period during which the relative value of the grant diminished, it has progressively increased since the start of the 1990s.

Some countries offering interest-bearing loans have also been faced with the need to introduce changes in repayment conditions. This mainly concerns the Nordic countries, which have modified the link between the graduate's income and the amount to be repaid over a certain period of time. Thus, in Sweden, since 1988, annual repayment amounts have been set according to the beneficiary's income, with a fixed ceiling of 4% of the income. In Norway, since 1987, it has been possible to link repayment to income for a maximum period of 7 years under special conditions. In Iceland, the proportion of taxable income payable was raised to between 5% and 7% in 1992, but then reduced to 4.7% in 1997. In 1992, a decision was taken by the Icelandic Student Loan Fund that student loans should be fully repaid, with repayment starting two years after the successful completion of studies, and not be cancelled after forty years as under the previous regime.

The 1998 Teaching and Higher Education Act introduced changes to the repayment method of student loans in the United Kingdom. Repayments will be made through the tax system and will not begin until a graduate's gross income is over £10,000 a year (to be reviewed annually). Students whose income is above this value will be expected to pay 9% of their marginal income above the threshold. Repayments will be suspended if a graduate's income falls below this level.

In many countries, the use of academic success on entry to higher education as a criterion for awarding financial assistance was abolished before 1980. The few countries that retained this, along with economic criteria, have introduced changes over the last 20 years. Thus in Greece, economic criteria have taken precedence over academic criteria for awarding grants since 1996. In Ireland, academic criteria for grant awards were abolished in 1994. Since 1997, Italy has put less emphasis on achievement criteria based on final secondary school results. Following the example of the public higher education sector, in 1994, Portugal abolished achievement criteria for grant awards in the private sector.

Students' progress in higher education has increasingly become the subject of particular attention in several countries where there has been a tendency for students to prolong their studies. The procedures put in place have differed from country to country, either strengthening the link with achievement or establishing a time limit for assistance. In 1988, Denmark chose as its mechanism the cheque or 'voucher' system under which students can benefit from a certain amount of financial assistance during their studies. The system's novelty is that the student can choose to draw the support either on a continuous basis or else periodically. In the latter case, credits accumulate for periods when support is not taken up and can be used later when required. Since 1996, measures have been taken in Germany to limit the length of studies by replacing the grant plus interest-free loan combination by an interest-bearing loan for those whose studies extend beyond the authorised time limit. Since 1992, Luxembourg has been awarding a special grant to students who finish the first study cycle within a maximum of 3 years (2 years notional study time plus an extra year). In the Netherlands, the law of 1988 simply fixed the length of financial support to 6 years. Academic progress has been taken into consideration since 1993 by the *tempobeurs* system for the continued payment of both the basic and the supplementary grant. If students failed to pass at least 25% of their credit hours, grants were converted into loans. In 1995, the threshold pass level was raised to 50% and in 1996, the system was changed to that of a *prestatiebeurs*. Basic financial support is initially given in the form of a loan that can be converted into a grant if the student passes 50% of the exams during the first year and, as a general rule, completes the studies within 6 years. In Finland, the time limit for the award of financial assistance was reduced in 1992, from 84 months (7 years) to 55 months ($4^1/_2$ years).

In some of the countries that require students to pass their examinations each year in order to keep their grants, the rules have been changed recently. In Portugal, since 1997, students have been allowed to retake twice before they lose a grant, as long as their performance in the previous year was judged as meeting the minimum standards, even if they failed the examinations. In France, the 1998 Student Social Plan introduced the possibility for students to retain their grant, originally awarded for a two-year cycle, for another year even if they fail their examinations. A similar regulation is under debate within the Flemish Community of Belgium.

These changes indicate that systems are tending to converge on one point: the strictest systems are tending to become more flexible while the most lenient are tightening up.

4.2. SUBSIDISED SERVICES

The three principal forms of support linked to services provided specifically for students in higher education are lodgings, transport and food. They can take extremely divergent forms from one country to another and are developed to differing degrees. A fairly detailed description of this type of services and how they are funded is presented in Chapter 4 of the study on financial support for students in higher education in Europe (European Commission, Eurydice, 1999). In general, they have been the object of very few reforms during the last 20 years and only the main changes are outlined here. Generally, subsidised transport and food are offered to students regardless of their means. However this is not the case in Greece, Spain or Italy (since 1993) for meal subsidies.

In relation to transport, measures were taken to reduce transport costs for students in Denmark and in Norway in 1996 and 1985 respectively. Transport costs formed part of the major reform introduced by the 1986 *Wet op de studiefinancering* in the Netherlands, as a result of which they came to be governed by complex measures for compensation and reimbursement. In 1991, the system was revised by issuing all students with a free public transport pass, with a concomitant reduction in the basic grant. A further modification in 1994 saw students being required to make a financial contribution towards their travel costs to limit the burden borne by the State. Students currently have the choice of Monday-to-Friday passes or weekend passes. Austria removed the right of students to free travel in 1995.

Regarding accommodation, in 1982, France relaxed access to the system for individual accommodation allowances for students depending on their parents' income. Since 1991, the sole criterion for the award of this allowance has been the student's income. Following the consultation process of 1990 on higher education, France developed a social plan envisaging an increase in accommodation, help with transport costs and subsidised places in university restaurants.

On the issue of subsidised meals, the level of family income below which students receive free meals has been indexed in Greece since 1983. In Spain, since 1983, support made available by universities has been offered on the basis of economic and academic criteria which are incompatible with those used to award state grants. In Italy, after a long period during which meals were offered free of charge, a minimum charge was introduced in 1994, along with an increase in grants. In 1997, help with meals hitherto only given to students with grants was extended to students fulfiling the conditions required to obtain a grant but who, for budgetary reasons, had not been able to obtain one. Portugal, on the other hand, is offering all students meals at subsidised prices. In these countries, parallel to this measure, subsidised services have been progressively replaced by cash benefits.

Finally, in Greece, where books are offered free to all students annually, a debate has begun on this system, which appears evermore costly.

CHAPTER 5: CURRICULUM AND TEACHING

This chapter examines reforms relating to the curriculum and teaching in higher education institutions in the participating European countries. For the purposes of this study, 'curriculum' will be broadly interpreted as including the structure and content of higher education courses as well as the type of higher education qualifications they lead to. 'Teaching' covers the pedagogical approach, the student assessment methods as well as training requirements and recruitment procedures for higher education teaching staff and the evaluation of teaching quality.

This is not an attempt to describe in detail the structure and content of the vast range of higher education courses offered by the participating countries. As such information is already available in European Commission publications and databases[1], this chapter seeks to focus primarily on changes in the curriculum and teaching of higher education institutions since 1980.

Table 1.1 in Chapter 1: Legislation for Change shows that in most countries, course planning was the subject of reform during the period of study. As these changes coincided with the transfer of responsibility for many aspects of the curriculum to the higher education institutions, the number of reforms actually derived from legislation declined during the period under consideration. Teaching and assessment on the other hand, were never documented as being at the centre of reform in the majority of countries no doubt because, in all countries, teaching and assessment methods are primarily the responsibility of the individual institution or teacher.

Apart from important structural changes related mainly to the upgrading of institutions offering vocational training, much change in the area of curriculum and teaching was gradual and progressive, emanating from national or institutional policy discussions or planning processes, and in a number of countries was first put into practice through pilot projects. There are often large differences between institutions within the same country in the extent to which they have embraced change.

The chapter attempts to outline the main directions of change while simultaneously recognising that the increasing diversity of curricula and teaching methods, both between and within countries, is a goal and a strength of higher education provision. The chapter looks first at changes in the curriculum, then at developments in teaching and assessment and presents an overall view of reforms in the final section.

5.1. THE CURRICULUM

A major reason for change in the structure and content of higher education courses during the period considered was the increase in the number of entrants to higher education. This meant that in most countries studied the highly theoretical, academic courses traditionally offered by universities were no longer appropriate for all students, leading to the need to offer more practice-related, vocationally-oriented options. At the same time, due to the impact of economic factors, government policies in many countries focused on tightening the links between higher education and the needs of the labour market for highly-qualified employees. Higher education was increasingly expected by governments to tailor its course offer towards areas with current or predicted skill shortages and to be flexible in the re-direction of resources. Both of the above influences have led to an increase in the number and size of vocational programmes offered at higher education level and to a concomitant desire to increase the status of vocationally-oriented courses. In most countries, therefore, this has particularly stimulated the expansion of the non-university sector.

---

[1] Eurybase database

The following sections look at the factors underlying change in the higher education course offer and the related policy developments.

5.1.1. FACTORS UNDERLYING CHANGE

The study seems to suggest that there are two separate, and somewhat contradictory trends in relation to the planning of higher education courses. The first is the strong trend towards giving higher education institutions more autonomy over their administrative affairs, including course planning. The second is the intention, mainly promoted by public authorities, to link the course offer more closely to the economic and social environment and in particular the labour market. A closer look however reveals that the trend towards increased links with the world of work is to a certain extent the consequence of greater institutional autonomy. As was shown in Chapter 2: Management, Finance and Control, a number of countries link the increased independence of institutions from government to their obligation to include members of the business or student community on their management teams or at least to consult their views. Together with the reforms introduced to institutional funding (formula-based funding, funding by contract, increases in tuition fees) this has meant that institutions depend to a growing extent on the support of their sponsors and students. In many instances, this has lead to closer links with the labour market and initiated curricular reforms aimed at increasing the employment value of academic qualifications.

Table 5.1 shows these changes over successive five-year periods, indicating whether they applied to the university or non-university sector or to all of higher education. Whilst the dates given relate to the enactment of legislation or publication of policy documents on which the changes were based, the actual implementation of change was usually a gradual process which may well have begun before this date and/or may often have continued for several years afterwards.

Table 5.1: Factors underlying change in the higher education course offer and the year the relevant legislation was passed or the policy document published

A. Institutions increasingly responsible for course planning within a general national framework

	<1980	1980-85	1986-90	1991-95	>1995
University sector	D, F, EL, IRL, UK, IS, LI	DK: 1982 & 1985 EL: 1982 E: 1983	I: 1990 P: 1989	B fr: 1994 B nl: 1991 IRL NL: 1993 FIN: 1994 S: 1993	L: 1997 NL: 1996 A: 1997 I: 1997
Non-university sector	DK, EL, IRL, UK	EL: 1982	NL: 1986	B fr: 1995 B nl: 1994 IRL A: 1993 FIN: 1991	NL: 1996 NO: 1996

United Kingdom: Course validation for the non-university sector was undertaken by the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA) prior to the passing of the Further and Higher Education Act 1992. Individual institutions were, however, responsible for the planning, teaching and examination of courses.

B. Closer links to the labour market

	<1980	1980-85	1986-90	1991-95	>1995
University sector	D, S, FIN, UK	E: 1983 F: 1984 IRL UK: 1985	I: 1990 IS: 1988 S: 1987 UK: 1987	DK: 1993 FIN: 1993 S: 1992 UK: 1992	A: 1997 I: 1997 P: 1997 S: 1996,1997 IS: 1997
Non-university sector	DK, D, L, UK	EL: 1983 IRL L: 1984 P: 1979/80 UK: 1985	L: 1990 UK: 1987	B fr: 1995 A: 1993 FIN: 1991 LI: 1992 UK: 1992	I: 1997

Source: Eurydice

Denmark The 1973 Administration of Universities Act introduced cooperation with the labour market, but these links became firmly established only by the 1993 Consolidation Act on Universities.

5.1.1.1. Devolution of responsibility for course planning

Chapter 2: Management, Finance and Control (Table 2.1) shows that, in 1980, the planning of course structure and content in the university sector was controlled by the national government (in Germany at *Länder* level) in most European countries except Ireland, Sweden and the United Kingdom. Such control was often achieved through the issuing of detailed legal regulations, or tables covering all the different courses offered and made the system extremely inflexible. During the period considered, as discussed in Chapter 2, most countries have granted institutions more autonomy over the content, and sometimes the structure of their course offer with a view to increasing flexibility and responsiveness to the labour market. This change often occurred simultaneously with a general reform of the higher education structure, which will be discussed later in this chapter. However, the Government has in all instances retained the right to define a general framework within which such planning must take place together with the right to monitor the quality of the courses offered. It is notable that in all countries with a binary system, universities have been given more and earlier freedom in this respect than non-university institutions.

Denmark, Greece, Spain, Italy and the Netherlands gave institutions more control over course planning as part of major reforms of the higher education system during the early part of the study period. In Denmark, Spain and Italy, this autonomy was given to the university sector only, whereas Greece granted both sectors autonomy in course planning simultaneously. The Netherlands extended equivalent autonomy to the non-university sector four years after it was given to the universities.

In Greece, rigid central control of courses was replaced in 1982 by the autonomy of universities (*AEI*s) and technological education institutions (*TEI*s) to introduce new study programmes, to decide whether a course is optional or compulsory, to establish assessment procedures, to determine the length of courses and to decide on the teaching methods to be used. In Spain, courses leading to recognised national qualifications such as *diplomado* or *licenciado*, have to be constructed within common guidelines and approved by the Council of Universities. However, since 1983, universities have had the freedom to design curricula as well as the combinations of compulsory and optional subjects, course lengths, links with other courses and assessment methods.

In the Netherlands, institutions in the university and the non-university sectors were given more responsibility for course development at separate times as part of the change from government regulation of higher education to steering through development plans. In 1981, the Two-Phase Structure Act restructured university courses and required institutions to draw up their own regulations on teaching and assessment based on a national framework. In 1986, the upgrading of higher professional education from secondary to higher education level gave similar responsibilities to these institutions. The 1993 *WHW* brought an end to the national curricular guidelines for university education as laid down in the Academic Statute (*Academisch Statut*). In the 1996 Dutch Higher Education and Research Plan (*HOOP*), institutional autonomy was taken further to encourage greater differentiation, and higher education institutions were given greater freedom to vary the length of the courses they offered. However, courses are only eligible for state funding if they are registered in the Central Register of Higher Education Courses (*CROHO*).

Italian universities were required to set up degree course councils to oversee course delivery in 1980, but the national regulative framework remained. In 1990, there was a reform aimed at reducing dropout and increasing the range of courses offered in order to respond to changing labour market needs. As part of this reform, universities were apparently given more responsibility for defining the structure and content of their study programmes, but constraints imposed by the national curriculum tables remained very strong. These tables were suppressed by the 1997 Law on the autonomy of institutions.

In Portugal, in 1980, new higher education courses could only be created via a legal act issued by the Ministry of Education. As part of the process of granting greater autonomy to universities, the 1988 Law on the autonomy of universities stipulated that, from now on, universities only had to register their courses with the Ministry of Education, while other institutions still had to have their programmes approved by it.

Between 1991 and 1995, Denmark, France and Sweden gave universities (and university colleges in Sweden) more autonomy in the planning of courses. In 1993 in Denmark, as part of a move towards increased institutional autonomy, universities were given greater freedom to vary the content of programmes of which the particular intention was to keep up with labour market needs, and to decide on the combination of courses they would offer. Today the Government still lays down the overall structure of the programmes in consultation with the educational institutions. The programmes an institution offers must be approved by the Ministry, which consults the relevant national advisory board about the professional/subject quality and the need for the programme in question.

In France, the so-called *maquettes*, describing in detail the structure and content of each university course leading to national degrees, were revised and simplified in the course of restructuring the first two university cycles in 1992/93. Although decentralisation was not one of the aims of the reform, it provided an opportunity for universities to initiate change by applying for recognition of new courses, often more closely responding to local needs.

Swedish higher education institutions were given responsibility for course planning in 1993, as part of the decentralisation resulting from the Higher Education Act and Ordinance. Under the centrally-controlled planning structure which had existed since 1977, higher education courses had formed part of study programmes with a fixed, government-prescribed content leading to specific degrees (line system). This was replaced by a system where the Higher Education Ordinance only stipulated the objectives for general and professional degrees and the length of study programmes.

The trend towards giving Austrian universities more control over the curriculum began with the requirement that institutions set up curricular committees to oversee the content of courses. In 1997, the Austrian University Studies Act replaced a complex set of higher education study laws by a set of flexible legal instruments aimed at making training more demand-oriented and the programmes more economical and geared towards the labour market. Universities and their curricular committees were given responsibility for drawing up their own course schedules covering courses and options, examinations and teaching programmes.

In Ireland, Finland and the United Kingdom, governments have traditionally had little control over the planning and content of university courses which, since before 1980, have primarily been the responsibility of the institutions themselves. In the non-university sector, courses were accredited and planned by bodies such as the National Council for Education Awards in Ireland and, until 1992, the Council for National Academic Awards in the United Kingdom. However, recent reforms in the United Kingdom have led to some steering of the courses offered by institutions through the funding system.

The remaining countries, which showed relatively little tendency to decentralise control over the planning of higher education courses during the period under review, included Belgium (non-university sector only in the French Community), Germany and Norway, all of which have traditions of central control of higher education, either by the national government in Norway, at *Land* level in Germany, or by the organising authorities (*pouvoir organisateur/inrichtende macht*) in Belgium.

5.1.1.2. Closer links with the labour market

In a study carried out for the European Commission, Green et al. (1997, p. 141) identified a 'more explicit and deliberate articulation of higher education systems with existing economies' as one of the major areas of convergence between European countries. This interaction has been achieved through changes both at national level and, more importantly, at institutional level with the improved targeting of the course offer as an important aim. The increasing importance of institutional links with the local economy is paralleled by the trend, described above, towards institutions to having more autonomy over the planning of their course offer, and the changes often took place as part of the same reform process.

Table 5.1 shows that the highest proportion of changes in this area took place between 1991 and 1995 but also suggests that most changes during the study period affected the university sector.

Such changes have included the setting up of national advisory councils with representatives of industry, commerce and local or regional government to advise the government on the national higher education course offer and the inclusion of external representatives on the governing bodies of institutions. Furthermore, the use of external examiners from industry in the assessment of students and in the quality assessment of courses, the provision of work placements for vocational students, joint research, and the increase in in-service course provision for employees have all contributed to the improvement of links between institutions and their local economy.

Due to their emphasis on vocationally-oriented courses, and the local links which were often an important factor in their establishment, non-university institutions were more open to the influence of the labour market in most countries than the universities, which were sometimes opposed to the establishment of such ties. The motivation for establishing a non-university, vocational/technological sector in a number of countries during the period studied was primarily the expansion of the labour market-related course offer at higher education level. However, since links between the non-university sector and the labour market were often already well-established before the study period, the main focus of reform after 1980, in countries with a binary higher education system, was on the extension of those links to the universities.

Although discussed in greater detail in Chapter 6: Internationalisation, the signing of the Sorbonne Declaration by Germany, France, Italy and the United Kingdom in May 1998 deserves a mention here, as the four signatories commit themselves to promoting a common higher education framework with improved graduate employability as one of its aims.

In Luxembourg, work placements have proven important in reinforcing links with the labour market. In Portugal, the Government has been the main instigator of linking course development to the labour market, but it is the institutions that played the major role in implementing the necessary mechanisms. In the 1990s, with the support of EU funds, two consecutive *PRODEP* programmes were established providing training for academic staff and internships for graduates in certain areas, such as engineering, technology, science, economy and business administration. In 1998, an agreement was signed between the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Labour and Solidarity establishing a national observatory to study the insertion of graduates into the labour market and their further professional development.

In Austria, a mechanism was established in 1997 to ensure that the planning of university courses also took account of the views of the labour market. The University Studies Act required university curricular committees to consult with employers' representatives about any proposed change to courses.

The Finnish economic recession of the early 1990s prompted the Government to issue new decrees on degree and course structures taking into account the needs of a changed labour market. Since 1994, within the framework of these decrees, all higher education institutions have been free to design and develop their courses, degrees and curricula, although polytechnics must still have their degrees and programmes approved by the Ministry of Education. In 1996, the reform was extended with the aim of facilitating the movement of students between universities and/or study programmes and of enhancing the quality of education, including its international comparability.

In Belgium, Ireland and Norway developments bringing the labour market and higher education institutions closer together were focused initially on the non-university sector, though their influence frequently extended to the university sector. In Ireland, the Universities Act 1997 includes among the objects of a university the following - (i) to support and contribute to the realisation of national economic and social development and (ii) to educate, train and retrain higher level professional, technical and managerial personnel. In Ireland, the emphasis on the development of technological higher education courses during the study period has been associated with the recognition that the links between higher education and business need to be strengthened. Since the beginning of the 1980s, the National Board for Science and Technology (NBST) and its successors Eolas and Enterprise Ireland have been active in this area. Both the French and Flemish Communities of Belgium have developed their non-university, vocationally-oriented higher education provision during the study period, but they have also seen trends towards universities offering courses which are more closely related to the labour market.

In Norway, the non-university sector was reorganised in 1994. The resulting state colleges play an important role in regional development and decentralisation of higher education as did their predecessors, the regional and vocational colleges. Those offering courses in engineering, business administration or other relevant subjects are encouraged to cooperate with local business and industry as part of the local or regional 'innovation chain'. The 1995 Universities and Colleges Act brought universities and colleges under the same legal framework and established *Norgesnettet* (Network Norway), a national higher education and research network based on cooperation and communication between institutions. The governing principle of the network is that new study programmes should be considered in relation to an overall national plan and, from 1998, the *Norgesnettradet* (Network Norway Council) is being set up to advise the Minister in this area.

In the remaining countries, the changes during the study period focused primarily on the strengthening of links between the university sector and the labour market, often through changes in institutional governance or consultation requirements (Denmark, Spain, Sweden and United Kingdom) or through regionalisation (France and Iceland). In Denmark, the strengthening of the influence of representatives of potential employers of future graduates and of other educational institutions, so-called 'receivers', over the planning and content of courses offered by universities was a deliberate policy during the 1990s. The 1993 Consolidation Act on Universities required that at least two of the external members appointed to the governing bodies of institutions were representing 'receivers' with an expert knowledge of education and research. Furthermore, at least one-third of the external examiners who contribute to the assessment of students and to the quality assurance of courses, must be potential employers. In addition, representatives of business and industry are members of the National Advisory Boards, which advise the Ministry of Education.

In Spain, the aim of reforms relating to university courses has been two-fold (i) the reorganisation of the study structure into distinct cycles and (ii) the development of a curriculum which takes account of economic and social reality, so that universities can serve the needs of a changing labour market as well as carry out research. The Act on University Reform from 1983 gave universities the academic freedom to define their own curricula and degree structure. Since 1987, in order to receive official, nation-wide recognition, study courses and degrees must however conform to certain general guidelines established by the Council of Universities.

In Sweden, the regional boards, which were set up in 1977 to strengthen links between the university colleges and the region in which they were situated, were again abolished in 1988. The representation of the social partners and the local authorities was transferred to the governing boards of the higher education institutions. The majority of these boards are appointed by the Government and, as they have become increasingly powerful as a result of the devolution of responsibility to institutions, they have been required to include more and more external members. Since 1988, the majority of board members had to be representatives from trade and industry, local and regional authorities, political parties and the social partners and, from 1998, the main professional interest of the person chairing the board must lie outside the institution concerned. The importance of close cooperation between universities and university colleges, and society at large has been stressed. The 1992 amendment to the Higher Education Act stipulates that this cooperation and the duty to inform the public about the institutions' activities is the third task of higher education besides teaching and research.

In the United Kingdom, the 1985 Green Paper, *The Development of Higher Education into the 1990s*, stated that the design and content of higher education courses directly relevant to jobs should be adjusted regularly in the light of advice sought from employers. The subsequent 1987 White Paper called for more collaboration with industry and employers in the provision of courses. Most higher education institutions responded to this advice by taking into consideration not only the needs of employers but also the needs of society. More vocationally-oriented courses were introduced and the curricula of non-vocational courses were adapted to cover key skills such as information and communications technologies. The 1991 White Paper, *Higher Education: a New Framework*, supported an increase in the provision of more two-year full-time diploma courses, particularly those with a vocational emphasis. An increase in the number of students studying science, engineering and technology courses was also encouraged. In Scotland, a developing trend for one- and two-year sub-degree higher education courses to be undertaken in Further Education Colleges was strengthened by the Further and Higher Education (Scotland) Act 1992.

In France, closer links have gradually developed between universities and regional economies through the expansion of contract-based funding. The decentralisation acts of the mid-1980s stimulated links between the regions and their local universities and have, since 1990, led to a series of agreements between the State and the regions to finance construction programmes at higher education institutions. Since 1994, the regions, in consultation with the universities, have developed regional higher education schemes, which include the provision of courses adapted to the regions' economic needs.

In Iceland, the establishment of the University of Akureyri in 1988 marked a new emphasis on the link between the economy of the regions and the higher education system. The courses offered at the university reflected the emphasis on practice-based courses in nursing, fisheries, business administration and teacher education. Furthermore, the 1997 legislation which increased the autonomy of the higher education institutions also required the appointment of two external members to university governing councils.

Amongst the countries where no changes were discernible in this area were Germany and the Netherlands, which both had a well-established non-university sector with good links to business and the labour market before 1980. Germany has intensified this cooperation by the more systematic incorporation of one or two semesters of practical experience into non-university study courses. The Danish non-university sector also has a long tradition of close links with the labour market.

5.1.2. POLICY DEVELOPMENTS RELATED TO REFORMS OF COURSE STRUCTURE AND CONTENT

Four main areas of change were identified:

- the establishment of a non-university, vocational higher education sector
- the merging of vocationally-oriented institutions and the upgrading of courses to higher education level
- the introduction of shorter initial university degree courses and
- the introduction or reinforcement of flexible, modular, credit-based courses.

The main common trend in these developments was the apparent convergence between course structures in the university and non-university or vocational sectors in most countries. However, the distinction between countries offering academic and vocational courses in two separate higher education sectors, often reflected by an academic/vocational divide in upper secondary education, and those seeking to unify their entire higher education sector is still valid. As Green et al. (1997) showed, the majority of European countries have maintained a binary divide in higher education, despite the convergence in course structures observed since 1980. In Germany, there is an ongoing, very controversial debate on moving university programmes with a vocational orientation into the *Fachhochschule* sector. In the Flemish Community of Belgium (1995), the Netherlands (1992) and Norway (1995), university and non-university institutions were brought under the same legal framework but the distinctions between the courses offered by the two sectors were on the whole maintained. Greece, Spain, Italy, Luxembourg, Austria, Portugal, Finland and Liechtenstein all established a non-university, vocational higher education sector, thereby instituting a binary divide in higher education during the period under review. In contrast, in Sweden, the higher education sector had already been unified in 1977, before the start of the study period and in the United Kingdom (except Scotland), many non-university higher education institutions gained university status following the passing of the Further and Higher Education Act 1992. The Further and Higher Education (Scotland) Act 1992 also made it possible for Higher Education Institutions in Scotland to apply to the Privy Council for powers to award their own degrees. Since 1992, seven institutions have been granted the power to award their own degrees and five have been granted a university title.

Developments shown in Table 5.2 have led to a course structure of equivalent value in both the university and non-university sectors in many countries with a binary divide in higher education. The non-university sector may continue to offer short, lower-level courses and the universities continue to have a monopoly of research-based doctoral courses, but the intermediate levels have moved closer and closer during the study period. This convergence has also encouraged and facilitated the movement of students, primarily from the non-university to the university sector.

Table 5.2: Policy developments related to reforms of course structure and content

		B fr	B nl	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO
Establishment of non-university, vocational higher education	**<1980**	●	●	●	70			●	●		79	68					66			●
	1980-85					83								79/ 80						
	1986-90						90													
	1991-95												93		91				92	
	>1995									97										
Merging of vocationally-oriented institutions and upgrading of courses to higher education	**<1980**	77	77		70												●			
	1980-85	84	84			82					83	85								81
	1986-90	90					90	89	89		90			88						89/ 90
	1991-95	95	91 94				93		92	90		92			91 95		92		92	91 94 95
	>1995									97		96			97			97		96
Introduction of shorter initial university degree courses of 2 or 3 year duration	**<1980**						70	66, 73								●	●	●		●
	1980-85						83													
	1986-90									90										
	1991-95			93											94	93				
	>1995				98			99					99	97						
Introduction or reinforcement of flexible, modular credit-based courses, including open and distance learning	**<1980**				74		72								●	●	70s			
	1980-85			82								84		80			85			
	1986-90			90			87			90				88			87 90			90
	1991-95		95					92/ 93							94	93	91			
	>1995		97		98	97												97	96	

Source: Eurydice. *< Before* *> After* ● Precise year not reported

Denmark	A non-university, vocational higher education sector has existed in Denmark for the past 40 years and was extended during the period of this study.
Italy	A tertiary vocational system, newly established in 1997, operates on an experimental basis. The Law of 1990 planned the introduction of a credit-based system, but its implementation only got under way in 1997.
Iceland	Although very common before 1980, it was only with the Framework Law on Higher Education of 1997 that all courses were required to be credit-based.
Liechtenstein	Since its accession to the EEA in 1995 and the participation in the European action programmes, Liechtenstein has started to modularise its study programmes.
Norway	Credit-based courses were not introduced via a legal act, but have been phased in since the 1950s and are in general use throughout the country.

5.1.2.1. Establishment of a non-university, vocational higher education sector

Countries which established specialised institutions for the provision of vocational higher education during the study period were Greece, Spain, Italy, Austria, Portugal, Finland and Liechtenstein. However, most countries made subsequent provision to extend links with business, industry and the local economy to the universities.

In 1990, the *LOGSE* introduced higher grade vocational training (*formacion profesional de grado superior*) to Spain as part of non-university higher education. Courses have a modular structure, which favours close links with the business community and allows for the adaptation of courses to the changing technological, economic and social environment. Greece established the technological education institutions (*TEIs*) in 1983. These were oriented towards the application of technological knowledge and up-to-date professional practice and, in addition to theoretical knowledge, aimed at providing students with the qualifications necessary to practice a trade. At the same time a Council of Technological Training was set up with representation from scientific, professional and social organisations to advise the Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs on the further development of *TEI*s and, in the meantime, 25 new *TEI* departments have been created.

In Luxembourg, most reforms during the study period have been aimed at the creation of a vocationally-oriented, non-university higher education sector. These have consisted primarily of the upgrading or creation of higher education courses for teachers, educational child care staff and in technology. The increased autonomy given to the Higher Institute of Technology in 1996 included the responsibility for the provision of university-level education in preparation for technical executive posts in the production and services sectors and for cementing relations with industry (practical training in companies, applied research). In Italy, a system of higher technical training (*formazione integrale superiore*) was established in 1997 on an experimental basis. The reinforcement of this system is strongly recommended by industry, business and labour organisations.

The Austrian *Fachhochschulen* were established in 1993 to offer science-based, practice-oriented, higher education as an alternative to the more academic university courses. Just at the start of the period under consideration, in 1979/80, the Portuguese Government created polytechnic institutions in an effort to diversify higher education to areas previously not covered by higher education. One of the most significant developments in Finnish higher education was the creation of a new non-university sector in 1991 by upgrading vocational secondary education. The polytechnics were based on existing regional, vocational training colleges and were intended to contribute to regional economic development. Although originally introduced as an experimental project, given their success, polytechnics were soon established on a permanent basis and in the academic year 1997/98, 16 permanent and 21 temporary polytechnics were in operation. Liechtenstein established a *Fachhochschule* in 1992 to provide higher education courses in vocational subjects as well as in-service training. Great importance is attached to cooperation with industry and commerce.

5.1.2.2. Merging of vocationally-oriented institutions and upgrading of courses

Changes relating to the merging of vocationally-oriented institutions and the upgrading of vocational courses have been grouped together since, in many countries, they were closely associated. They arose from the desire to raise the status of vocational higher education, which often had its origins in the secondary school sector, and to create institutions of comparable size to the universities. The process of upgrading tended to begin with the lengthening of individual courses (e.g. teacher training) to bring them up to higher education or university level, and to culminate in the introduction of a qualification structure to all non-university institutions with longer degree courses equivalent to those at universities. This new common structure often also included the right for non-university graduates to transfer to higher level, related courses in the university sector.

In many countries, such changes in the status of vocational courses were part of a wider and often year-long gradual process of convergence between the university and non-university sector which also affected other areas such as the autonomy of institutions.

The different stages in the convergence process can be exemplified by looking at the reforms in Belgium. Here, teacher training for nursery and primary teachers was extended from two to three years in 1984 and the length of other courses in the non-university sector was gradually increased from two to three or four years over the next decade. However, it was not until after the linguistic Communities had taken over responsibility for higher education in 1989 that more extensive reorganisation of the non-university sector took place, separately in the French and Flemish Communities. In 1995, the 106 non-university institutions of the French Community were merged and restructured to form 30 *Hautes écoles* with increased autonomy. Although planned since 1970, it was only in 1999 that the French Community put in place the necessary mechanisms for transfers between the different types of higher education, thus reinforcing the links between the university and non-university sectors. In the Flemish Community, in 1991, the two-cycle non-university programmes were recognised as being at the same level as university courses. In 1994, all short-type education at non-university institutions was extended from two to three or four years to produce a common course structure which comprised one-cycle, three-year vocational courses and two-cycle four or five-year degree courses equivalent to university degrees. At the same time the course syllabuses were rewritten and 163 institutions were merged to form 29 *hogescholen*.

The upgrading of individual courses, particularly teacher training courses, was observed in many countries, mainly during the 1980s and usually involved the lengthening of courses and the rewriting of curricula. In Greece, pre-school and primary teacher training courses were upgraded to higher education level in 1982. In France, all teacher training courses were upgraded to university level with the setting up of the *IUFM* in 1989. In Italy, all training for nursery and primary teachers was upgraded to university level by Law 341 in 1990, but for teacher training the implementing regulations did not come into effect before 1998. Luxembourg nursery and primary teacher training courses were upgraded and lengthened in 1983 with the establishment of a non-university teacher training institute while the training for educational child care staff (*educateurs gradues*) followed in 1990. Portugal upgraded a number of courses to higher education by moving them to the newly created polytechnic institutions, such as nursing training in 1988. In Finland, nursery teacher training became university level in 1995.

In other countries, entire institutions or sectors of education were upgraded from non-university to university level or from secondary to higher, non-university education, often by merging several institutions of a similar type. They were frequently given equivalent autonomy and responsibility to that of universities and were often brought under the same legislative framework. In Ireland, the National Institutes of Higher Education were upgraded to university level in 1989 and the non-university regional technical colleges were given a high degree of institutional autonomy in 1992, before being changed to institutes of technology in 1998. In the Netherlands, all non-university education was upgraded from secondary to higher education level in 1986 and more than 350 institutions were merged into 85 much larger institutions. The 1992 Higher Education and Scientific Research Act (*WHW*) brought both the university and non-university sector under the same legal framework, giving equivalent levels of autonomy to institutions and equal status to qualifications from both sectors, though the distinction between them remained. In the United Kingdom, the polytechnics (and their Scottish equivalent) and, subject to satisfying certain criteria, other higher education institutions were permitted to adopt the title of university, following the passing of the 1992 Further and Higher Education Acts. In Iceland, four teacher training institutes were merged and upgraded to form the University College of Education in 1997, while in Liechtenstein, the *Fachhochschule Liechtenstein* (formerly the *Liechtensteinische Ingenieurschule*) was upgraded to a higher education institution in 1992. In Norway, a series of extensions of the legislation from 1980 onwards led to the gradual upgrading of courses offered by regional and vocational colleges. This began with the extension of the 1970 Act on Examinations and Degrees and the chapter on examinations and degrees of the 1989 University and University Colleges Act to the non-university sector, which entitled these institutions to confer the university-level *cand. mag.* degree. The process included the upgrading of the academic requirements for staff members, the length of study programmes and the content of curricula. It culminated in the 1995 Universities and Colleges Act, which gave non-university colleges equivalent autonomy to universities and brought both sectors together under Network Norway

In Denmark, Spain, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom, short, sub-degree higher education programmes, which had often been derived from secondary-level vocational courses, were expanded and their standards regulated during the 1990s. In Denmark, the short-cycle vocational programmes were reformed and regulated in 1997 to improve their quality. In Spain, the 1990 *LOGSE* legislation established new one-cycle vocational training courses, and regulations governing such courses were issued in 1993. In Luxembourg, two-year vocational training courses leading to the *brevet de technicien superieur* (*BTS*) were established in 1990. Finally, in the United Kingdom, an increase in the provision of two-year, vocational sub-degree courses was proposed in the 1991 White Paper. The 1997 Report of the National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education (Dearing Report) proposed that the provision of such courses should be expanded. Further education colleges can provide courses of higher education, particularly at sub-degree level. In Scotland, Higher National Certificate/Diploma courses (of one or two years) are further education courses which were given higher education recognition in 1992.

As mentioned above, both universities and non-university institutions began to offer higher level vocationally-oriented degrees during the 1990s in the French Community of Belgium, Spain and the Netherlands. These were often created at the initiative of the institutions themselves, were sometimes called Master's degrees and were not always recognised parts of the national qualifications structure.

In the French Community of Belgium, universities have begun establishing new sections and options, particularly specialised vocationally-oriented postgraduate courses (e.g. *DEC - diplôme d'études complémentaires, DEA - diplôme d'études approfondies* and *DES - diplôme d'études spécialisées* in the university sector, and *DESS - diplôme d'études supérieures spécialisées* for long-type non-university education) or in-service training for employees. Spanish universities have begun to offer professional specialisation courses since 1983 (*LRU*) leading to qualifications which are not nationally recognised such as the Master's degree. In France, universities increased their provision of third cycle (postgraduate) vocational courses. These include the *DESS*, a one-year business course to follow the *maîtrise* degree, which, although already created in 1973, proliferated during the period under consideration, and the *DNTS (diplôme national de technologie spécialisée)* introduced in 1994 and intended for graduates from vocational short cycle studies. In contrast, the *magistère* course, a three-year interdisciplinary course offering similar final qualifications to the *DESS*, was discontinued in the early 1990s. It is also worth noting that the whole structure of higher education programmes in France is currently under review. In Italy, the new *scuole di specializzazione* (schools for the specialisation of *laurea* degree holders) will be set up in 1999 to provide specialist postgraduate courses for secondary school teachers as well as for law and forensic science. In the Netherlands, demand for higher level courses has led some of the non-university *hogescholen* to give their students the opportunity to gain a postgraduate university degree by running joint Master's degree courses with foreign universities since 1996. In Finland, discussion has started about the creation of a post-polytechnic, non-university degree system, at least in some fields of study. In Norway, some of the teacher training colleges were given the right to award higher degrees in the 1970s, limited to school-relevant disciplines without parallel in the university sector. Around 1990, many of the regional colleges also started offering higher degree courses in cooperation with the universities.

No major changes in vocational course status took place in Germany during the period under review because the merging of vocationally-oriented institutions and the upgrading of such courses had taken place in the *Fachhochschulen* before 1980. Sweden already had a unified higher education system in 1980 and made no differentiation between the structure of the academic and vocational courses offered.

5.1.2.3. Introduction of shorter initial university degree courses

Although the non-university sector in most countries continued to offer short sub-degree, vocational courses in line with local needs, during the 1990s, both university and non-university institutions in a number of countries began to offer short, postgraduate-level, vocationally-oriented courses. In some countries they were aimed at attracting foreign students and therefore at stimulating international mobility. In others, they reflected the ambition of the non-university sector to offer higher degrees, at that time the unique preserve of the universities.

The trend of offering a two or three-year initial degree course at university which gives access to the next level of university courses complements the upgrading seen in the vocational sector and has facilitated the establishment of equivalent qualification structures in the two sectors. In 1980, university degree courses in many European countries lasted a minimum of five years and were often highly academic.

The lack of intermediate qualifications meant that students who did not complete a course, or pass their final exams, were left without any recognition of their years of study. The great increase in entry to university courses has led to most countries introducing a system of higher education consisting of successive two or three-year levels or cycles, each ending with a higher education qualification. In many countries, only those who do well enough at the end of the previous cycle may proceed to the next level. In some, the first cycle includes a wide range of vocationally-oriented courses aimed at students who do not necessarily wish to extend their studies beyond this first level. These courses run alongside longer, more general courses in the humanities and sciences for those who aim at higher academic degrees. The highest level usually consists of research-based doctoral courses or highly specialised vocational courses with selective entry. Traditional university courses such as medicine and law are rarely included in the new course structure.

In Denmark, a three-year Bachelor's degree programme was introduced in 1993 with an additional two years' study leading to the *candidatus* degree. In Spain, degree courses were restructured into distinct cycles in 1983. Some study courses offering a vocationally-oriented degree comprise only one cycle, but most courses will comprise two cycles whereby the degree is only awarded after the completion of the second cycle. Students can then continue with a third cycle aimed at scientific, technical or artistic specialisation. The most innovative element in the new course structure was the introduction of second-cycle-only education, which is accessed via complementary training courses or on the basis of first-cycle qualifications.

In Italy, in 1990, the Law on the reorganisation of university teaching introduced a three-level degree structure of (i) first level studies, lasting two or three years and leading to the *diploma universitario*, offering basic university education, particularly in technological and commercial areas (ii) second level *laurea* courses (which are an alternative to the *diploma* courses and not a continuation) lasting four to six years and providing general university education in a specific field of study and (iii) the third level doctorate and *diploma di specializzazione* following the *laurea* and lasting two or more years and focusing on specialist advanced knowledge or skills. This reorganisation responded to a need for courses adapted to different levels of study, and aimed to reduce the dropout rate and to create new professional courses to meet labour market needs. The objective has not been achieved, mainly because the *diploma* proved less attractive than the traditional *laurea*. In order to combat this shortcoming, the 1997 reform places the second level *laurea* no longer in parallel with, but as a progression from, the first level.

In the Netherlands, the 1981 Act introduced a two-tier structure into higher education with an initial four-year stage aimed at a broad range of students and a second, selective stage of postgraduate programmes. The change was intended to make university education more suited to the increased number of students entering and to reduce the dropout rate. Recently, universities have been given the possibility of offering an intermediate qualification, the so-called *kandidaat*, which is situated between the *propedeuse* (preliminary qualification) and the *doctoraal diploma* (final qualification), but so far no university has taken advantage of this possibility.

As of 1999, Austria is planning the introduction of an undergraduate (Bachelor's) degree for university studies and the *Fachhochschule Liechtenstein* will offer students the possibility to study for a Bachelor's or Master's degree in economics.

In Portugal, the 1997 Education Framework Act gave universities and polytechnic institutions the possibility of awarding the same type of degrees, the *bacharel*, awarded after two to three years of study (but currently only awarded after 3 years) and the *licenciado*, after four to six years. In exceptional circumstances, the *licenciado* course can be shortened by one or two semesters. Only universities can, in addition, award the degrees of *mestre* and *doutor* confirming an advanced level of specialist knowledge.

The Finnish 1994-1997 degree reform required the re-structuring of university degrees to link these more closely to the needs of the labour market. It led to the three year Bachelor's degree being offered in all subjects except medicine, veterinary medicine, dentistry, technology and architecture. The second or higher academic degree is generally called *maisteri/magister* and corresponds to a Master's degree. Sweden has a unitary higher education system and the Degree Ordinance of 1993 foresees three general exams after a minimum of two, three or four years of undergraduate study (*högskoleexamen, kandidatexamen* and *magisterexamen*). It is possible to pass these exams in succession.

Belgium, France, the United Kingdom, Iceland and Norway did not make changes in this area but they already had university degree structures, which offered initial courses of four years or less at the beginning of the period studied. Germany has maintained its unitary degree structure, but in the last 2 or 3 years universities have had the possibility of introducing courses as mentioned above. Luxembourg and Liechtenstein do not have public higher education institutions which offer full university degrees. Greece and Austria did not make any changes aimed at reducing the length of initial university degrees during the period under study, preferring to retain a single-stage structure.

5.1.2.4. Introduction or reinforcement of flexible modular credit-based courses

During the period considered, many countries have made changes aimed at increasing flexibility and choice in higher education courses and at facilitating mobility between study courses and higher education sectors. These have included splitting course programmes into smaller units on a semester, term or module basis and the introduction of credits. Such sub-division of courses increases student choice and facilitates inter-disciplinary and inter-institutional movement, including mobility between the non-university and university sectors and between different countries. The pioneers of such changes were the open universities, established in many countries during the period reviewed, but more flexible courses have also been introduced into the mainstream higher education system.

Open universities traditionally rely on a modular course structure as they were established primarily to facilitate access to higher education for those who were unable to follow a full-time higher education programme due to their work or home commitments, or who lived too far away from a higher education institution. Their role in improving access to mature-age students is discussed in Chapter 3: Access and Wastage. Their courses had to be structured to allow students maximum flexibility to choose different combinations of subjects and to study these at a variety of speeds. The different structures included moves away from a year-based system towards building degree programmes based on combinations of shorter modular courses of which students have a relatively wide choice. This entailed the organisation of courses on a semester or term basis with assessment at the end of each module. It also required the establishment of a common credit system allocating each course module a certain value or credit and the stipulation of the total number of credits necessary to obtain a degree. Due to the distance-learning opportunities they provide, open universities transcend local and national boundaries and many were set up as a result of institutional or international collaboration.

The setting up of Spain's National Distance Learning University (*UNED*), France's Centre for Distance Learning (*CNED*), the Finnish Open University education system and the United Kingdom Open Universities pre-dated this study, though they have expanded considerably during the period since 1980. The open university has become a significant part of higher education in the United Kingdom and is now the largest higher education institution in terms of student numbers. The Flemish Community of Belgium set up an open university consortium involving several universities in collaboration with the Open University of Heerlen in the Netherlands in 1995. Denmark's first open university programmes were introduced in 1982 on an experimental basis and extended to the entire higher education sector in 1990. Germany's *FernUniversität* Hagen has offered correspondence courses since 1975/76 and the Greek Open University was established in 1997. The Dutch Open University was opened in 1984 and the Portuguese Open University was created in 1988. In Iceland, access to teacher training has been facilitated for non-traditionally trained adults from remote areas by the use of distance learning techniques since 1993. In Norway, *SOFF*, the central body for higher education distance learning, was established in Tromsø in 1990 to register and coordinate existing and planned distance education course offers by higher education institutions within a national network. In Sweden, higher education institutions organise courses for open or distance learning, which especially in the northern, thinly populated areas are very widespread. This type of decentralised education started before 1980 and, in the academic year 1996/97, nearly every tenth student was enrolled in distance education courses.

The introduction of such changes to the mainstream university system has been motivated primarily by the desire to improve completion rates and the recognition that not all students are necessarily able to complete their courses at the same pace. However, the greater flexibility and breadth of choice required, has had implications for the planning of course structure and content, e.g. the closer adaptation of courses to work and life patterns necessary for the delivery of lifelong learning. The European Credit Transfer System (ECTS), set up to ease mobility of Erasmus students between European countries, has also had an influence in standardising the credit system attached to degree courses across Europe.

Modular, credit-based courses were introduced primarily into the university system in the Flemish Community of Belgium, Spain, France and the United Kingdom and into both sectors in Germany (from 1998 on a larger scale), Greece (open-choice programmes only), Ireland, the Netherlands, Finland, Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway. Although foreseen since 1990, such a system has not yet been fully implemented in Italy. Credit systems have not been introduced into both the university and non-university sectors in all countries. Where they apply to both sectors, they contribute to further convergence. The Netherlands and Finland retained differently-named qualifications in the university and non-university sectors but the use of a common credit system enabled qualifications of a similar value to be obtained in both sectors. There have been no moves towards introducing a credit system or the modularisation of courses into the higher education systems of the French Community of Belgium, Luxembourg or Austria during the period studied.

In the Flemish Community of Belgium, a course credit system was introduced into universities in 1997 to allow students to change course more easily. In Greece, the mainstream higher education courses were not changed but, from 1997, flexible, modular, open-choice study programmes based in *AEI*s and *TEI*s were initiated to encourage lifelong learning linked to labour market needs, especially in business studies and information technology. These allow students to combine different courses or to follow one course only, depending on the requirements of the labour market. In Spain, a credit system for university courses was introduced in 1987 as part of the amended regulations on study programmes. In France, the 1992/93 reform of the first university cycle leading to the *DEUG* introduced modular courses as a way of reducing failure and facilitating early course changing by students.

The Irish non-university regional technical colleges introduced modular courses leading to National Council for Educational Awards (NCEA) diplomas or certificates in the 1980-85 period. These allow students to choose the combination of courses they would like to study both within or across subject areas and at different institutions. The system is modelled on the ECTS (60 credits representing the workload of one year of study) with the aim of facilitating student mobility within Europe. In the Irish universities, there have been moves to split courses into semesters with end of term examinations for some courses. In Italy, the semesterisation of some courses has, in a few instances, allowed the introduction of integrated courses consisting of coordinated modules taught by different teachers. The systematic creation of curricula based on credits is the main focus of the 1997 reform. In the Netherlands, a credit-based system was introduced to the university sector by the 1981 Two-Phase Structure Act. Courses were subdivided into related course units whose study load is expressed as credits (1 credit for 40 hours of study) and the study load was distributed evenly across the year. The credit system was extended to the non-university sector by the 1992 Higher Education and Scientific Research Act. In Portugal, a 1980 decree-law introduced credit units but these have not become widespread. The Finnish degree reform, beginning in 1994, required the re-structuring of degrees to link them more closely to the needs of the labour market. It led to the modularisation of university and polytechnic degrees in order to leave room for individual flexibility and academic mobility.

In the United Kingdom, the broadening of the undergraduate curriculum was seen as necessary with the expansion of higher education, leading to more multi-disciplinary and combined subject courses, particularly during the 1990s. Modular systems of study, based on two semesters a year, are becoming increasingly common particularly in the 'new universities' and in Scotland. The 1985 Green Paper and the 1987 and 1991 White Papers gave support to the development of credit accumulation and transfer schemes (CATS) and more flexible patterns of teaching and learning such as modular courses and distance learning provision. CATs allow students to create a personal programme of studies to complete a degree; credits may be given for previous study or work experience. One of the recommendations of the Dearing Report was the creation of a new framework for higher education qualifications which would provide for credit accumulation and transfer between institutions. Scotland introduced the Scottish Credit Framework. The Scottish Credit and Qualifications Framework (SCQF) lies at the heart of a range of initiatives to promote wider access and participation in lifelong learning and to make clear the nature and standards of programmes and qualifications. The implementation of SCQF was one of the main recommendations of the Scottish Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education (Garrick Committee) and is one of the ten key points in the Government's Action Plan for the development of lifelong learning in Scotland (Opportunity Scotland). The SCQF will bring all Scottish qualifications within one single system. It will build on Scotcat, which is an existing scheme of credit transfer for higher education qualifications. The development of the SCQF has potential implications for all learners and all providers of education and training, including professional bodies and employers.

Iceland introduced a unit credit system to most courses after 1990. In Norway, university and college courses generally carry a certain number of credits with 20 credits equivalent to 1 year of full-time study. Students may combine subjects from different faculties or institutions but one subject must be studied for at least one and a half years and another for at least one year to fulfil the requirements for the *cand.mag.* degree. The credit system combined with the Network Norway framework has also facilitated the movement of students between sectors. It has made it possible to take the first year of an academic degree course at a state college and then to continue with the second year at one of the universities.

5.2. TEACHING AND ASSESSMENT

As explained in the introduction, the teaching and assessment of higher education students has been the responsibility of individual institutions and teaching staff in all the participating countries since 1980, and this responsibility has not changed over the period studied. This was one of the reasons why information on the methods employed was not easily available for all the countries involved.

The increased intake for higher education courses has in some countries led to larger teaching groups and the need for new academic posts, challenging traditional teaching methods. The call for increased accountability discussed in Chapter 2: Management, Finance and Control and the importance attached to the evaluation and quality of output of courses has stimulated changes in teaching and assessment in many, but not all, of the participating countries. In contrast to other reforms discussed in this study, most changes introduced in teaching and assessment arose first at the bottom, mainly coming from practitioners in individual institutions. In many cases, it is therefore impossible to identify dates and a clear time-scale for the changes described in this section.

Table 5.3 summarises the main changes in teaching and assessment during the period under consideration. Although the table and text refer to higher education teaching staff, it is recognised that the responsibilities of academic staff in higher education institutions usually cover a combination of teaching, research and administration.

Table 5.3: Reforms in teaching and assessment since 1980

	B fr	B nl	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO
Teaching																			
Increased emphasis on the pedagogical competence of teaching staff			●	●			●	●			●		●	●	●	●		●	●
Larger teaching groups			●					●	●				●			●			●
New teaching methods (with a focus on problem-solving in small groups)			●	●		●	●				●			●	●		●		●
Increased use of information and communications technology		●	●	●		●	●	●			●		●	●	●	●	●		●
Work experience as a course element	●	●		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●		●	
Student Assessment																			
Introduction of new assessment methods											●				●	●			●
Increased frequency of assessment due to shorter course units, modules or cycles	●					●	●	●	●		●		●	●		●	●	●	●

Source: Eurydice.

5.2.1. TEACHING

This study identified five areas of reform in relation to teaching:

- increased emphasis on the pedagogical competence of teaching staff
- larger teaching groups
- new teaching methods (with a focus on problem-solving in small groups)
- increased use of information and communications technology
- practical training or work experience as a course element.

5.2.1.1. Increased emphasis on the pedagogical competence of teaching staff

As pointed out above, the increased emphasis on the quality of teaching as part of the quality assessment of higher education courses has led to increased attention being paid to the teaching competence of higher education staff, particularly at universities. In most countries there is a difference between the university and non-university sector in the criteria for recruitment of such staff, the amount of time they are expected to spend teaching, and their training. Staff in the non-university sector are much more likely to have been trained to teach than university staff.

In some countries, where the non-university or vocational sector evolved from the secondary sector, teaching staff were trained as secondary school teachers and were appointed partly on the basis of their teaching competence. In other countries, non-university teaching staff have a background in the relevant profession or trade and are offered training on appointment. Such staff usually spend considerably more time teaching and less on research compared with their university-based colleagues. In many countries, a major priority for training non-university staff is to raise the level of their higher education qualifications to include a research-based higher degree.

185

In contrast, university academic staff are appointed in most countries on the basis of their research record and rarely have to prove their teaching competence. Their tasks include both carrying out research and teaching, but since research tends to raise their status it is often given higher priority by universities. The need for in-service training for such staff is now widely recognised but, in all countries, it remains the responsibility of the institutions.

Only in Belgium, Greece, Spain, Luxembourg, Austria and Iceland, have there been no changes to the recruitment process and training of higher education teachers during the study period nor, with the exception of the French Community of Belgium, any discussion on the need for such reforms.

In Denmark, the main emphasis when appointing university staff has traditionally been on research experience whereas teachers at vocational colleges must take a postgraduate teacher training course within their first two years of employment. However, teaching ability is increasingly being taken into account at universities. Changes in the staffing structure in 1993 introduced a requirement to supervise, guide and evaluate the teaching of new academic staff. The increased emphasis on good teaching is exemplified by the nomination of 'teacher of the year' by some institutions and the recent establishment of the Danish University Pedagogical Network by a group of universities to encourage teaching development.

In Germany, university professors are generally required to have a post-doctoral lecturing qualification (*Habilitation*). Pedagogical aptitude is usually demonstrated in a sample lecture. It is expected that teaching ability will have more importance in the future in the appointment of new university teachers. Professors at *Fachhochschulen* are, as a rule, required to have gained professional experience. In the fields of educational science and subject-related didactics within teacher training only persons with three years' experience of teaching in schools should be appointed as professors.

University teachers in France are appointed through a *concours* (competitive examination) where most importance is attached to their research record. Training of higher education lecturers is not compulsory but a system of supervised on-the-job training was set up in 1989. This allows *moniteurs*, a new category of junior staff, to be recruited from among doctoral research students for a period of up to three years. They do about 2 hours of teaching a week under a lecturer-tutor and receive 10 days of training a year. After completing their thesis, they can be employed as temporary research and teaching assistants while seeking a post as *maître de conférences*, the first echelon of the university career ladder.

In Italy, the responsibility for the selection of teaching staff was transferred in 1998 from the Ministry to the universities while maintaining research results as the sole selection criteria. In Ireland, improvements in the skills of teaching staff are considered necessary by the Government's advisers. The 1994 Report on the National Education Convention pointed out that 'a necessary complement to the process of evaluation of quality is the need for a development programme which will assist third-level staff in improving their teaching skills'. The Universities Act 1997 requires institutions to establish procedures for quality assurance and lists, among the objectives of university, the promotion of quality and the highest standards in teaching and research.

Dutch university lecturers were traditionally appointed because of their quality as researchers but over the past decades, with greater emphasis placed on the performance of the higher education system, particularly in relation to the financing of institutions, attention has gradually focused on the teaching abilities of such staff. Various universities have introduced compulsory teacher training for lecturers.

In Finland, the Ministry of Education stimulated efforts to improve the quality of university education in 1994 with the move towards performance-based funding of institutions and by identifying institutions which are centres of excellence in teaching. The quality assurance process introduced in the early

1990s has focused the attention of institutions on teaching quality. However, discussion of the need to take account of the candidates' pedagogical skills in appointing professors has only recently started and formal teaching qualifications are not yet required for the appointment of university academic staff. In contrast, teaching staff appointed to the polytechnics are required to have formal pedagogical training. A special action programme was established in 1995 to help polytechnic teaching staff upgrade their higher education qualifications.

Pedagogical skills have become more important in the recruitment of teachers and professors at Swedish universities and university colleges while, at the same time, the importance of research as a task of academic staff has been increasingly stressed. To improve teaching skills, institutions offer courses for teachers and organise conferences on pedagogical matters.

In the United Kingdom, universities are increasingly providing training for their newly-appointed teaching staff, who are usually selected on the basis of their research record. In 1992, the Staff and Educational Development Association (SEDA) set up an accreditation scheme which aims to ensure a common and appropriate standard of training for higher education lecturers. The 1997 Report of the National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education (Dearing Report) recommended that all higher education institutions should develop or seek access to programmes of teacher training for their staff. It also proposed that an Institute for Learning and Teaching in Higher Education (ILT) be established to provide a national system of accreditation for such training programmes. In response, the ILT Planning Group was established in February 1998 to develop the concept further and the Institute for Learning and Teaching was launched in June 1999. Its explicit aims are: accredit programmes and other routes for the professional development of higher education teachers; commission research and development in learning and teaching practices; and stimulate innovation and support good pratice.

The upgrading of the *Fachhochschule* in 1992, led Liechtenstein to impose higher standards for its teaching staff. Since 1995, Norwegian academic staff have been required to have training or experience in teaching. Training is the responsibility of the employing institutions, many of which now offer pedagogical training for staff, especially in communication and the dissemination of knowledge. Prior to 1995, however, academic staff teaching vocational study programmes with the exception of engineering were already required to have teaching experience or to attend teacher training.

5.2.1.2. Larger teaching groups

A small number of countries stated that the increased number of students entering higher education led to increases in the size of teaching groups. In most countries, the traditional method of teaching, at least in the first years of study, consists of non-participatory lectures to very large audiences. In general, the number of students per lecturer decreases in more advanced study courses.

At the beginning of the period studied, institutions in Denmark moved from lecturing in large auditoria to teaching in smaller groups, which have however increased in size, during the period considered. At Italian universities, the professor to student ratio has worsened continuously over the past twenty years and there are now very significant differences between departments and institutions. In Portugal, the introduction of formula-based financing using teacher to student ratios has forced institutions to increase the size of classes, cut down on teaching in small groups, reduce the number of lectures and promote self-study among students. Many higher education institutions in the United Kingdom have in recent years been obliged to adapt their teaching methods due to the expansion of higher education. Here too, the number of students in teaching groups has increased, putting pressure on the tradition of teaching in small tutorial groups. Norway too has recently moved away from instruction in classroom-sized groups, particularly on vocational courses in non-university institutions. Larger teaching group sessions are followed up by smaller discussion groups. This allows larger numbers of students to participate while retaining and, in some cases, increasing the opportunities for active student involvement in the learning process.

5.2.1.3. New teaching methods

There was general agreement in those countries which identified changes in this area that novel teaching methods were more likely to have been introduced in 'new' courses (business administration, new technologies) while subjects such as literature and law were least likely to have seen changes. It was also agreed that universities were more likely to continue to use a combination of lectures and seminars while non-university or vocationally-oriented institutions were more likely to teach to smaller groups and to do more practically-based exercises. Changes in teaching methods tended to focus on the involvement of small groups in active, practical problem-solving and were often a response to increases in the number of students and to the drive to improve their success rates. Universities were particularly likely to have introduced such changes.

In German universities, the emphasis is on individual study alongside formal tuition. Innovative instructional methods have, however, been experimented with, including piloting project-oriented learning in small groups. Similarly, in Denmark, the emphasis on project work in the university and non-university sectors has been steadily rising during the study period and this is now an integral part of all study programmes under the Ministry of Education.

In Finnish universities, other teaching methods such as project work, seminars, group work and tutoring are increasingly being used alongside traditional lectures. Finnish polytechnics have paid special attention to bringing teaching closer to the reality of the workplace. In Sweden, innovative teaching methods such as immersion courses or Problem-Based Learning (PBL) have been introduced where students from different programmes solve complex problems together. Norwegian higher education institutions, as mentioned above, have moved towards larger-group teaching followed up by smaller, active seminar groups. The problem-solving method has been introduced into courses in the social sciences and, more recently, into medicine and many courses emphasise 'reflective education' where the students are encouraged to re-interpret problems in terms of their own experience.

5.2.1.4. Increased use of information and communications technology

Information and communications technology (ICT) includes the use of television and radio transmissions for educational purposes as well as computers and the Internet. Open universities, discussed above, pioneered the use of information and communications technologies to develop distance learning techniques but these have increasingly been adopted by mainstream universities for use with on-site students. In addition to allowing the development of skills which are essential to modern working life, they allow more individualised, student-controlled learning at times of increased teacher to student ratios.

In the Flemish Community of Belgium, new technologies are increasingly used in teaching and a 1997 decree set up a fund to encourage institutions to use open and distance learning. In Germany there are plans to use ICT in teaching, including the use of intelligent problem-solving or simulation systems, computer-based training applications as well as televised and computer conferencing. In French universities, little new technology is used, but this is developing, especially on technological courses. Irish universities are making more use of computer-based and multi-media training in technical courses, business studies and language-learning. The Finnish Government has invested heavily in the introduction of modern information technology to university teaching through the purchase of new equipment and teaching materials and by launching pilot projects in IT-aided teaching. In Sweden, in recent years, teaching methods using both traditional (video and audio tapes) and new (computer and information networks) educational technologies are becoming more widespread and effective in higher education. Open and distance learning is going to be extended to a growing number of higher education institutions.

Higher education institutions in the United Kingdom increasingly exploit information technology, for example, by using televised lectures and interactive sessions. The use of new technology also means that the distinction between mainstream and open or virtual universities is becoming less clear-cut. The University of the Highlands and Islands project is currently being developed by UHI Ltd. The intention is to bring together, within a single institution, responsibility for the higher education courses currently provided by colleges of further education across the Highlands and Islands of Scotland, and to expand the range of courses at degree and postgraduate level. Open and distance learning will be used alongside traditional residential courses. The Government has also announced the establishment of the University for Industry (UfI). The UfI, which will be launched in the year 2000, will be a new kind of organisation for open and distance learning aimed at individuals and businesses. It will use modern information and communications technologies to broker high quality learning products and services and make them available at home, in the workplace and in a nation-wide network of learning centres. There will be a distinct Scottish University for Industry. The 1997 Report of the National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education (Dearing Report) identified the need to support higher education institutions more effectively in their use of information and communications technology-based learning and teaching materials. The Higher Education Funding Councils, the Department for Education Northern Ireland and other departments and organisations associated with the provision of higher education have recently commissioned a study to audit the range of existing activities using ICT for learning and teaching, in both further and higher education in the United Kingdom.

In Iceland and Norway much teaching on newer, more technological programmes involves the use of computers and new technology, and the Internet is increasingly used on all higher education courses.

5.2.1.5. Work experience as course element

In most countries, periods of work experience or on-the-job training have traditionally formed part of most vocationally-oriented training courses, mainly in the non-university sector before 1980. The upgrading of such courses to higher education level, together with the pressure to adapt all programmes more closely to the labour market has meant that, in most countries, practical training has become increasingly widespread as part of higher education programmes. In addition, moves towards life-long learning have also led to higher education courses which alternate periods of work-based training with full-time education. Vocationally-oriented courses, especially in the non-university sector, almost always include compulsory periods of work-experience but also university courses increasingly include shorter periods of work experience for students, often during holiday periods.

In the specialised, vocationally or technologically-oriented institutions established during the period considered in Greece, Luxembourg, Portugal, Finland and Liechtenstein, practical training was made an integral part of some courses. In Luxembourg, work placements have been part of the curriculum at the *IST* since 1979 and were made part of the short-cycle studies introduced in 1984. In Austria, work placements are only compulsory in vocationally-oriented programmes and institutions. In Italy, almost all first-level university degree courses (*diploma*) established in 1990 have work experience as a compulsory element in their curriculum. Some courses (*progetto campus* run by the Rector's Conference) are based on agreements with enterprises and offer promising job opportunities after graduation.

In the French and Flemish Communities of Belgium, work placements are important in the non-university sector and increasingly so in universities with more sandwich-type courses (alternating work and study) under development. In Ireland, practical training is an important part of the vocationally-oriented courses at the University of Limerick, the Dublin City University and in the non-university sector. In Sweden, practical training has traditionally formed part of study programmes for the medical professions, nursing and teacher training. Due to the expansion of higher education during the last decade and the increased emphasis placed on the interaction between higher education and society at large, work placements are gaining in importance. In Iceland, newer programmes in business and mass communication put increasing emphasis on practical training and hands-on experience.

In the United Kingdom, following the recommendations of the Dearing Report, the Government is supporting actions to assist institutions to increase the relevance of higher education to employers. Increasing the employability of higher education graduates is a key priority, and measures to achieve this, such as the promotion of work experience opportunities for all students, are encouraged.

5.2.2. ASSESSMENT

Despite many other changes seen in higher education since 1980, there have been very few changes to the methods for assessing students during the period studied. Both university and non-university institutions still favour summative, formal, usually written examinations at the end of each semester or academic year, though it is the final exams which are most heavily weighted in deciding the quality of the degree awarded. The intermediate exams are mainly to ensure students have reached the appropriate standard to progress to the next year and can usually be re-taken. For higher level degrees in particular, but frequently at all levels, students are also required to write a paper or thesis based on a piece of independent research. Continuous assessment or assessment of practical work more often contributes to the final degree for vocationally-oriented courses. In Sweden, continuous assessment has traditionally been the only method of assessment, but in order to obtain a *kanditatexamen*, a *magisterexamen* and most professional degrees, students could write a paper or carry out project work on a voluntary basis in the major subject studied. Since 1993, this has become compulsory for the *kanditatexamen* and the *magisterexamen*.

5.2.2.1. Introduction of new assessment methods

Minor changes in assessment were mentioned in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom but these mainly related to systems for monitoring students' progress and were designed to supplement, not replace, summative assessment systems. In the Netherlands, the 1992 Higher Education and Scientific Research Act required institutions to draw up teaching and examination regulations defining relevant procedures. They also required institutions to set up a monitoring system, which would allow students' progress to be followed. The system should help to identify having problems with their studies at an early stage any students, so they could be advised to change course or to abandon studying altogether. In the United Kingdom, universities usually keep records of marks obtained by students during their courses in order to monitor progress. The 1997 Dearing Report recommended that institutions introduce a 'progress file' for all students which would be an official record of achievement and would allow students to monitor their own development. In Scotland, there has been a tendency to move towards a combination of assessment methods rather than relying on an end-of-year examination as the only method of assessment.

5.2.2.2. Increased frequency of assessment

Other changes in assessment were a consequence of reforms described earlier, such as shortening the length of degree courses and introducing modules or cycles on which assessment is based. Spain, Italy and Finland all introduced three-year initial degree courses, instead of assessing students after four to six years. Denmark introduced three-year first degree courses, replacing a system which had required students to study for up to six or seven years to obtain a degree. In 1994, it added a first-year exam which all students have to pass before continuing with a particular course. Furthermore, Spain, France, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Finland, Portugal, United Kingdom, Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway all now use modular, credit-based courses or assess students' performance each semester or year, thus moving closer to a model of continuous assessment.

5.3. OVERVIEW OF REFORMS

Reforms of course structure and content took place during the period studied in nearly all countries. Changes in teaching and assessment appeared to be fewer and less widespread, though this apparent difference may be due to relevant information not being available centrally, since such changes were primarily the responsibility of institutions and teachers.

With the expansion and increasing cost of the higher education system after 1980, there was an increased expectation that it should play a part in the preparation of students for the world of work, in close liaison with employers and the local community. This required a degree of flexibility in the planning of courses which was difficult to achieve through a national planning system. Thus, there were the simultaneous moves towards closer links with the labour market and devolution of responsibility for course structure and content to institutions, though the degree to which this took place varied between countries and was much more pronounced in the university sector.

The Nordic countries, except Norway, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom gave institutions the greatest degree of responsibility. In Greece, Spain, Italy, the Netherlands, Austria and Portugal, universities (and non-university institutions in the Netherlands) were given responsibility for the content of their courses within a national regulatory framework which determined the course structure and assessment requirements for nationally-recognised qualifications and approved new courses. In Denmark, Ireland, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom, universities were given in addition, or have retained, responsibility for planning the range of courses on offer. Nevertheless, governments in some of these countries are to a varying extent steering the national course offer by drawing up agreed development plans with the institutions and by basing part of their funding on outcomes such as the number of graduates in different disciplines. In the French Community (for the *Hautes écoles* only) and Flemish Community of Belgium, the organising authorities (*pouvoir organisateur/inrichtende macht*) kept control over courses, as did the Ministries at *Land* level in Germany and the Government in Norway.

National governments were the main instigators of moves towards developing closer links between the higher education system and the labour market from 1980 onwards in all the participating countries. The effect has been to stimulate the development of vocationally-oriented higher education courses, often to meet local labour market needs. Such implementation took place primarily at national (or organising authority) level in Belgium, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg and Austria, while the institutions, following government policy, had the major role in Denmark, Spain, France, Portugal, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway. While non-university institutions already had good links with the labour market, in many countries the development of close links between industry, commerce and the universities was the focus of policy during the period under consideration.

In many countries with a binary system, changes in the structure of higher education courses appeared to be leading to convergence between initial degree courses in the university and non-university sectors. However, except in the United Kingdom, there was little evidence of any tendency to completely break down the distinction between the two sectors, and a number of countries established a binary system during the period covered by the study. In most countries, there were moves to upgrade vocational courses from secondary school to higher education level, or from non-university to university level by rewriting curricula and lengthening study times. In some countries, the upgrading was focused on vocational institutions which were merged and restructured at the same time as their courses were upgraded. A clear aim was to increase the status of vocational higher education and to open up pathways between the university and non-university sectors. Germany and Sweden were the only countries not restructuring their vocationally-oriented courses or institutions during the period studied.

In some countries, these changes to vocational courses were paralleled by the introduction of (or as in Portugal by the possibility of introducing) shorter initial degree courses to the university sector, as was the case in Spain, Italy and Finland. For most of these countries, however, the primary aim of this reform was apparently not convergence, but an increase in the number of vocationally-oriented courses offered by universities and a higher completion rate for such courses.

A further potential source of convergence in some countries, was the introduction of modular, credit-based courses into the higher education system during the period studied. These met a need for greater flexibility and choice, which is discussed in Chapter 3: Access and Wastage.

The recognition of the need to offer life-long learning opportunities led to the introduction of modular courses and to the establishment of distance-learning courses in higher education. These were more compatible with the needs of working and family life, but were often restricted to newer, vocationally-oriented courses which were sometimes seen as lower status.

Fewer countries documented changes in teaching and assessment in higher education during the study period studied and a major motivation behind these appeared to be the desire to raise the quality of higher education courses, especially those in universities. This was in part due to the introduction of performance-related funding or quality assessment systems which, in many countries, took into account the quality of teaching. It was also a response to widening access to the higher education system and the entry of students of a much broader range of abilities and backgrounds into universities. The countries which documented most changes were the Nordic countries, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, which were also the countries where funding in the 1990s was based at least partly on performance and which had well-established quality assessment systems.

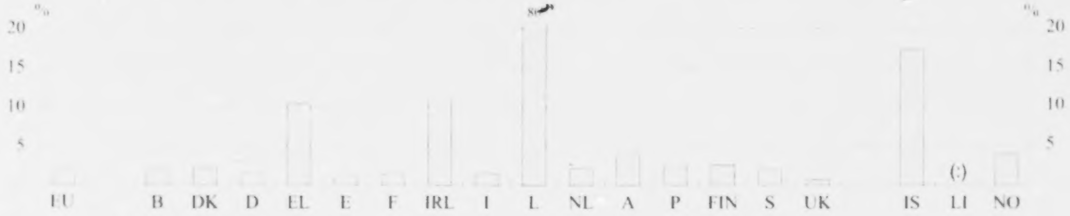
Most countries were aware of the need to ensure that university staff had pedagogical skills either through the appointment process or by offering in-service training, but few had taken action to meet this need, making this the responsibility of the institutions. There was a clear difference between the university and non-university sector, with training in both research and teaching being now much more widely required at appointment, or available once in service in the non-university sector.

There was little evidence of changes in teaching methods, the few changes being concentrated mainly in the area of vocationally-oriented courses at universities, especially those in new technology or business studies. There were moves towards more active, small-group teaching in universities in some countries, greater use of information and communications technology and the introduction of a work-experience element into most vocational courses, as well as into some university courses.

CHAPTER 6: INTERNATIONALISATION

This chapter employs a broad concept of internationalisation comprising any activity in higher education extending beyond the national borders of any participating country. It comprises student and staff mobility, curriculum development and all strategies initiated by public authorities and institutions to adapt to, and benefit from, cross-border relations.

Figure 6.1: Percentage of tertiary education students (ISCED 5, 6, 7) studying in another EU Member State or EFTA/EEA country, 1996/97



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Explanatory note
Countries do not have details of the numbers of their own students studying abroad. For a given nationality, the number of students studying abroad is calculated by summing the numbers provided for this nationality by the receiving countries. This number is then divided by the total number of students of this nationality. The lack of data on the distribution of students by nationality in some countries leads to underestimation of the values.

As shown by Figure 6.1 (European Commission, Eurydice, Eurostat, 2000, p. 110), the proportion of students studying abroad in the late 1990s varied considerably between the countries concerned, with students from Greece, Ireland, Luxembourg and Iceland showing a particularly high propensity to study abroad. Similarly, the number of students received by the different countries, both from within the European Union and from elsewhere, varied widely. These disparities in the proportion of students sent and received were reflected by differences in the internationalisation support structures in place in the participating countries and often also by differences in the amount of collaborative international research undertaken. Those countries which had a relatively high level of internationalisation before 1980 (Denmark, Germany, France, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom) primarily had links with non-industrialised, developing countries, often ex-colonies, which were associated with development aid programmes. These links consisted mainly of the reception of students from and the secondment of teaching staff to these countries as well as joint research projects. International links with other industrialised countries were primarily focused on collaborative research and exchanges of academic staff.

Since 1980, internationalisation has broadened to cover university and non-university institutions, student mobility, joint course planning and curriculum development, as well as the exchange of higher education staff and joint research. With the establishment of the European Commission's action programmes for research and student mobility in the mid-1980s, links within Europe have grown rapidly both in number and volume. One of the most important changes during the period studied was the development and expansion of European networks, covering both the exchange of students and researchers and the joint planning of courses and curricula, which have stimulated greater internationalisation at institutional level in all the participating countries. Since 1990, the break-up of the Soviet Union has led to the setting up of programmes to include Central and Eastern European countries.

A further important development in the internationalisation process of higher education during the 1990s was the move away from cross-border relations based on networks built up by individual academics within their specialised area, or on movements of individual students. Instead, there has been a move towards the involvement of governments in developing a systematic national strategy and the tendency for institutional management to include international links within their planning processes.

This chapter looks at internationalisation at European, national and institutional levels during the period under consideration, and the strategies employed at these different levels.

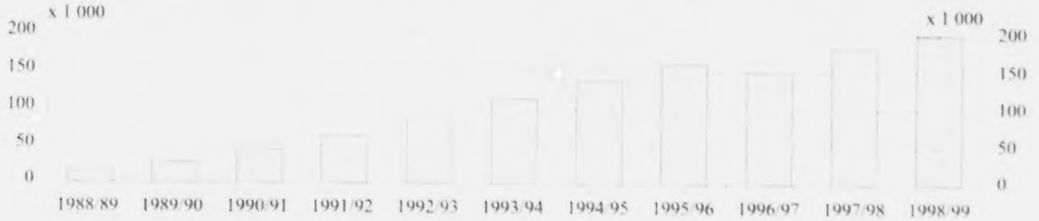
6.1. EUROPEAN UNION AND OTHER MULTILATERAL PROGRAMMES

European Union action programmes have been influential in all participating countries, both in encouraging the development of international research networks and in greatly increasing the mobility of students. The first Community action programme in education was adopted in 1976 and laid the foundations for the ever-increasing exchange of information, and cooperation within Europe. Joint study programmes were set up between universities in different Member States in an effort to promote mobility of students and staff. The positive experience gained led to the establishment of the Erasmus programme (European Community action scheme for the mobility of university students) roughly ten years later. A major driving force within the Erasmus programme was and still is the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) originally created for a period of six years (1989-1995) and limited to five subject areas. By guaranteeing full academic recognition of study periods abroad, it added value to the time spent at a host institution in another participating country. In 1995, the scheme was extended to a larger number of subject areas and special emphasis was placed on the use of ECTS within the non-university sector. Since all institutions wishing to take part in ECTS have to prepare an information package containing, among other things, detailed information on the course content, the system has served as a valuable source of curricular information throughout the participating countries in addition to its function as a promoter of study abroad.

Another important step forward on the road to closer European-wide cooperation and mobility within higher education was the creation of NARIC, the network of national academic recognition information centres. Established in 1984 for the Member States of the European Communities, it was gradually extended to comprise 29 countries in 1999. The NARIC centres also provide information on the Council Directives in relation to the recognition of higher education diplomas (Council Directive 89/48/EEC) and the recognition of professional education and training at higher education level (Council Directive 95/51/EEC).

The success of Erasmus is illustrated by the increase in the number of students participating in the programme between 1988/89 and 1998/99 as illustrated by Figure 6.2 (European Commission, Eurydice, Eurostat, 2000, p. 108).

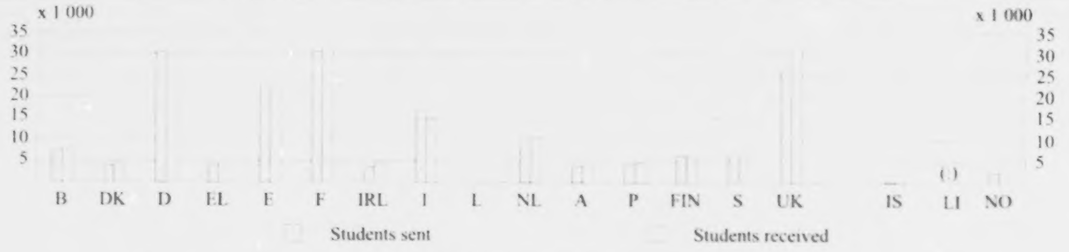
Figure 6.2: Increasing numbers of students selected to take part in an Erasmus exchange programme, in thousands, from 1988/89 to 1998/99



Source: Erasmus, Time series statistics 1988/89 to 1998/99.

In addition, the principle of reciprocity behind the Erasmus programme encouraged countries which sent more students abroad than they received (Germany, Spain, Italy, Luxembourg, Finland and Liechtenstein) to look for ways of attracting foreign students, while the main receiving countries (France, Ireland, the United Kingdom) were stimulated to encourage more students to study abroad. This flow of students by receiving and sending countries is illustrated by Figure 6.3 (European Commission, Eurydice, Eurostat, 2000, p. 109).

Figure 6.3: Percentage of tertiary level students selected to go abroad and be received within the Erasmus programme, 1997/98



	European Union										
	B	**DK**	**D**	**EL**	**E**	**F**	**IRL**	**I**	**L**	**NL**	**A**
Sent	7.59	3.96	30.54	4.08	23.16	30.68	3.57	16.56	0.04	10	3.78
Received	8.07	4.26	25.96	4.33	21.23	31.54	4.61	14.72	0.03	10.53	4.03

	European Union (continued)			
	P	**FIN**	**S**	**UK**
Sent	4.48	6.34	6.57	26.91
Received	4.70	5.72	6.64	31.79

EFTA/EEA		
IS	**LI**	**NO**
0.25	( )	2.47
0.29	( )	2.53

Source: Erasmus, Times series statistics 1988/89 to 1998/99.

Explanatory note
Between 1990 and 1994, some of the students moving under the Inter-university Cooperation Programmes (ICP) were financed under Action II of the Lingua programme. This action implemented in 1990 aimed to promote foreign language learning at tertiary education level and involved, in particular, future teachers of modern languages. The application and management arrangements in relation to these scholarships were identical to those introduced for Erasmus students. Since 1995, all inter-university Cooperation Programmes were carried out at the tertiary educational institutions through an inter-institutional contract (IC) established with the European Commission. Following these new managerial arrangements, no difference was made from then on between Lingua and Erasmus students.
All the statistics provided in this note are for the numbers of students included in the ICPs approved by the Commission and therefore eligible for an Erasmus travel scholarship.

Other influential factors were the successive Community action programmes in education and training for technology (Comett) promoting the cooperation between universities and industry as well as the programme for the promotion of language learning in the European Community (Lingua). Furthermore, the European Community has supported measures to promote and improve open and distance learning since 1987.

The launch of the first European Community action programme for cooperation in the field of education in 1995 (Socrates I) in accordance with Art. 126 of the Treaty on the European Union, led to the merging of Erasmus (with its constituent parts ECTS and NARIC), Lingua and the open and distance learning initiatives (ODL) under one single framework. With the introduction of the so-called institutional contracts, higher education institutions were encouraged to develop their own strategy for European cooperation. Another innovative element of Socrates I was the inclusion of adult education, with a high participation of universities. Its successor Socrates II is planned to cover a time span of seven years (2000-06) and to enjoy a budget increase of 20%.

Since 1995, the Leonardo da Vinci programme for the implementation of a European Community vocational training policy offers universities and their students a range of transnational activities aimed at the improvement of vocational training systems with a particular focus on lifelong learning.

Since 1990, the Community programme to generate links with Central and Eastern European countries (Tempus) has led to the development of further international projects in which higher education institutions are involved.

In addition to these programmes, specific multi-lateral agreements have been established by groups of countries, notably the Nordplus student exchange programme set up in 1988 by Denmark, Finland, Sweden, Iceland and Norway. In line with the Memorandum *Pushing Back the Borders*, the Netherlands, the Flemish Community of Belgium and three German *Länder* signed an agreement to establish an open area of higher education.

In May 1998, Germany, France, Italy and the United Kingdom signed the so-called Sorbonne Declaration in which the four signatories commit themselves to encouraging a common frame of reference aimed at improving external recognition of degrees and facilitating student mobility and employability. The Declaration suggests that every student should spend at least one semester studying abroad and comments on the emergence of a pattern that divides higher education into two main cycles. It stresses the importance of the international recognition of first cycle degrees as an appropriate level of qualification and points out that the second cycle could either be the shorter Master's degree or the longer doctoral degree course. The Declaration also recognises the importance of an adequate 'credit' scheme necessary for the transfer of study attainments and for allowing students to study at their own pace and during their entire life-span. Finally, the four signatories call on other European countries and, in particular, other EU Member States to join them in this objective and on all European universities to consolidate Europe's standing in the world.

29 countries (15 EU, 3 EFTA/EEA, 10 associated Central and Eastern European countries and Cyprus) followed this appeal when their Ministers of Education met in Bologna in June 1999. There, they signed a Joint Declaration to coordinate their educational policies in order to achieve the following objectives of primary relevance to the establishment of a European area of higher education:

- adoption of a system of easily readable and comparable degrees
- adoption of a system essentially based on two main cycles
- establishment of a system of credits
- promotion of mobility for students, teachers, researchers and administrative staff
- promotion of European cooperation in quality assurance
- promotion of the necessary European dimensions in higher education, particularly with regard to curricular development, inter-institutional cooperation, mobility and integrated programmes.

6.2. GOVERNMENT/NATIONAL STRATEGIES

Until the early 1990s, the prime movers of such initiatives in the different countries tended to be mainly individual academics whose enthusiasm and personal commitment sustained and built up the networks. However, during the 1990s, governments became more active in stimulating and supporting internationalisation of higher education, and the prioritisation of international projects in the funding of programmes stimulated the establishment of institutional structures and initiatives within institutions geared towards internationalisation.

The involvement of government can be gauged by the number of legislative actions, policy documents and other initiatives, such as the setting-up of national bodies to support the internationalisation process, the provision of special funding for institutions and financial support for students studying abroad. These are shown in Table 6.1 with the date of introduction included where possible.

Table 6.1: Government initiatives relating to internationalisation and the year they were adopted

	≤1980	1980-1989	1990-1997
Legislation and policy documents	L S	D: 1985 I: 1980 NL: 1988 S: late 1980s	B fr: 1995 B nl: 1991,1994 DK: 1997 D: 1992,1996 EL: 1997 I: 1991, 1997 NL: 1991 A: 1993, 1997 FIN: 1991,1993,1995 S: 1992 NO: 1991
Other initiatives **Establishment of national agencies in support of internationalisation**			DK: 1991 D A: 1990 FIN: 1991 S: 1992 IS: 1992
Special funding for institutions	F	DK: 1987 A: mid-1980s FIN: late 1980s	I: 1990-93 NL: 1997 FIN: 1994
Financial aid or other support for students	DK: 1955, 1970 D L A FIN: 1972 IS LI NO	D DK: 1988 F NL S: 1989 UK	B nl: 1990 E: 1996 I: 1990-93, 1997 NL: 1991,1997 A: 1992,1997 FIN: 1991 UK
Other measures to promote student exchanges		DK: 1987 E: 1989 F: 1992 L NL FIN: 1987	D: 1997 F: 1992 NL: 1997 A: 1997 UK: 1992 IS: 1994

Source: Eurydice.

6.2.1. LEGISLATION AND POLICY DOCUMENTS

As explained in Chapter 1: Legislation for Change, explicit mention of internationalisation was made, in the period after 1980, in the legislation or policy documents in a large number of participating countries.

In the Flemish Community of Belgium, the acts concerning universities (1991) and the non-university *hogescholen* (1994) enhanced the opportunities for internationalisation, allowing the use of four languages and the recognition of study periods abroad. From the mid 1980s, the Netherlands developed particularly clear and consistent government-led policies to encourage internationalisation, focusing on links within Europe. These began with the Internationalisation Incentive Programme (*STIR*) from 1988 to 1997 which aimed to promote an international orientation among higher education students, to encourage institutions to give their courses an international dimension, to encourage foreign study and placements and to develop facilities to host foreign students. The life-span of this programme was planned to coincide with the beginning of the European Community's Erasmus programme so as to further encourage the mobility of students in higher education. This action was supplemented in 1991 by a Government Memorandum *Pushing Back the Borders* which focused on educational cooperation, particularly in higher education, with neighbouring areas: North-Rhine Westphalia; Lower Saxony; Bremen and the Flemish Community of Belgium. The aim was to create an 'open higher education area' between these regions and the Netherlands across which there would be free choice of education. In 1997, a mobility fund was set up for students together with a fund for the development of structural international cooperation frameworks between groups of *hogescholen* (consortia) and institutions of higher education in Belgium, Denmark, Germany, France, Finland, Sweden, United Kingdom, Norway, Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland. These consortia were intended to work towards developing curricula for joint courses, regulating mutual recognition of course units and facilitating exchanges of lecturers, administrators and students. In addition, a fund to encourage the recruitment of foreign students was established in 1997, with students of Indonesian origin as the main target group during the first two years.

In Germany, Italy, Austria, Finland, Sweden and Norway the responsibility of higher education institutions for developing an international orientation was included among the aims of development programmes or legislation. In Germany, the 1985 amendment to the Higher Education Framework Act (*HRG* 1985, § 2, subsection 6) stated: 'The institutions of higher education shall promote international and, in particular, European cooperation in the higher education sector and the exchange of students and staff between German and foreign institutions of higher education; they shall take the specific needs of foreign students into consideration.' The focus was primarily on postgraduate level. The legislation was implemented through the 1996 *Hochschulsonderprogramm HSP III* (Special Higher Education Programme). In addition to European cooperation, the programme prioritised links with industrialised countries, overcoming political differences between the East and the West, and cooperation with developing countries. Study abroad is intended to help enhance relations with industrialised countries, particularly those in Europe. By accommodating foreign students in German higher education, the aim is to address the educational needs of the developing as well as the industrialised countries. In 1992, the *Wissenschaftsrat* (Science Council) recommended the internationalisation of course content to develop the 'virtual mobility' of students.

In Italy, Law 390 of 1991 stated that universities must (i) inform students of study opportunities abroad, especially those available through EU programmes, (ii) promote student exchanges between Italian and foreign higher education institutions and ensure the full recognition of these study periods, and (iii) provide intensive language courses for foreign students. The 1997 Decree implementing the 1991 changes to the Law on the right to higher education called on universities to award grants to supplement the scholarships received by university students whose courses involve international mobility. These principles have been reinforced and extended by Law 127/97, the Decree of the President of the Council of Ministers 25/98 and Ministerial Decree 6.3.98. This latter, indeed, considered internationalisation one of the objectives for the development of the university system 1998-2000.

The 1997 Austrian University Studies Act made international mobility a basic principle for the structure and organisation of courses. It requires the institution-based curricular committees to take account of international developments when designing new study courses. It allows for the use of foreign languages in study courses, i.e. classes and examinations can be held and certificates issued in languages other than German. As part of a course schedule, curricular committees may issue recommendations regarding the accreditation of studies at foreign universities in order to encourage mobility and the transfer of studies abroad. In each course of study, optional subjects to be taken at universities abroad can be freely chosen without any restrictions regarding content.

In Finland, the Ministry of Education first designed a strategy for the internationalisation of higher education in 1987 and this was incorporated into the successive Government Development Plans for Education and University Research (1993, 1995). The aims were to prepare students to operate in an increasingly international environment and to improve the quality and effectiveness of higher education in Finland. Clearly defined quantitative targets for international student exchanges were set at the end of the 1980s: by the end of the 1990s, every post-graduate student and at least 5,000 students per year studying for a Master's degree should spend at least one academic term studying abroad.

In 1977, the Swedish Higher Education Act of that year stipulated as a general aim of higher education the promotion of the understanding of other countries and of international matters. Today, internationalisation is regarded as an important element in maintaining the quality of work of higher education institutions, with international links focused mainly on European and other industrialised countries. A political priority since the late 1980s has been European integration as well as cooperation in the Baltic region. In addition, the incumbent government is stressing the need to refocus on cooperation with developing countries, a concern already expressed in the early 1970s.

In Norway, the 1991 White Paper on higher education included proposals to put a stronger emphasis on the internationalisation of higher education, for instance, through an increase in the number of student exchanges between Norwegian and foreign universities and colleges.

In 1997, the Danish Ministry of Education published the White Paper *Strategies for the Development of the International Dimension in Education*, which discussed among other things the issue of attracting more foreign students to Danish higher education institutions in order to reduce the imbalance in exchanges and the barriers to mobility. In Greece, the 1997 Education 2000 Act aimed to radically revise higher education provision and adjust it to international norms.

6.2.2. ESTABLISHMENT OF NATIONAL AGENCIES IN SUPPORT OF INTERNATIONALISATION

In this section, discussion of agencies involved solely in the implementation of EU action programmes is not included, as all countries under consideration have established such offices since 1987. Since 1990, in Sweden and Finland, national organisations, and in Germany, the *DAAD - Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst* (German Academic Exchange Service), have been set up by governments, often in collaboration with representatives of the higher education institutions, to plan and promote internationalisation in higher education. In Austria, the *ÖAD - Österreichischer Akademischer Austauschdienst* (Austrian Academic Exchange Service) advises and supports students, scholars or scientists from all over the world wishing to study or pursue research in Austria as well as their Austrian counterparts interested in going abroad. Within the *ÖAD*, various offices deal with different aspects of these exchanges, like the Office of European Educational Cooperation which was established in 1990 and is responsible for the administration of the EU educational and training programmes. In Sweden, the *Verket för högskoleservice* (National Agency for Higher Education) was established in 1992. One of the agency's tasks is the promotion of international exchange and the monitoring of international trends in higher education. The Finnish Ministry of Education set up the Centre for International Mobility in 1991 to promote international cooperation in education. The Centre is responsible for administering, developing and monitoring student and trainee exchange programmes and for providing information both on studies abroad and about Finnish educational provision. In Iceland, the *althjodaskrifstofa haskolastigsins*, an international office serving all higher education institutions was established in 1992. Its purpose is to promote internationalisation of higher education by (i) providing information on opportunities for cooperation, grants etc., (ii) assisting in negotiating agreements with foreign institutions and (iii) assisting in hosting foreign students and lecturers.

6.2.3. SPECIAL FUNDING FOR INSTITUTIONS

Following the events of 1968, France was one of the first countries to provide special funding to encourage the internationalisation of higher education (Faure Act). Denmark, Austria and Finland have started introducing special funding programmes to support or encourage institutions in the development of the internationalisation process in the second half of the 1980s. There was considerable discussion of the need to internationalise study programmes in Denmark during the mid-1990s when it was realised that the content and relevance of programmes had to be seen in an international context. The aim was to increase the extent and quality of the international dimension of programmes mainly through the expansion of staff and student exchanges. The Danish Ministry of Education established a special internationalisation fund in 1987 in support of the internationalisation efforts of institutions and students. During the years 1990-93, the Italian Ministry of Universities and Scientific and Technological Research (*MURST*) provided resources for both institutions and Erasmus and Lingua students to promote the participation of universities in the EU mobility programmes. In 1997, the Netherlands introduced a fund for the development of structural international cooperation frameworks between groups of Dutch *hogescholen* (consortia) and institutions of higher education in Belgium, Denmark, Germany, France, Finland, Sweden, United Kingdom, Norway, Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland. In the same year, funds were established to promote cross-border cooperation and the recruitment of foreign students. As a follow-up to the *Pushing Back the Borders* initiative, the Netherlands created a fund to stimulate cross-border institutional cooperation, student/staff mobility and the development of common joint-degree programmes in 1997. In an effort to encourage institutions to increase the intake of non-European students, mainly from Indonesia, an incentive fund was established in 1997. Since 1990, the Austrian Government has provided additional resources for institutions to support the numerous cooperation agreements between Austrian universities, including the Austrian universities for art and music, and their counterparts abroad in the areas of teaching and research. In Finland, performance-based funding, introduced in 1994 for institutions, is based partly on an indicator of the scope of international activities (the number of out-going exchange students and the number of exchanges for researchers). Funding is also available to support the provision of degree courses in foreign languages, mainly English.

6.2.4. FINANCIAL AID OR OTHER SUPPORT FOR STUDENTS

In a number of countries, state financial aid has been made available for students studying abroad since 1980, while certain countries (Denmark, Germany, Luxembourg, Austria, Finland, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway) already had such provision prior to 1980. Financial support sometimes took the form of a special grants programme or involved the extension of the regular state aid awarded to students in a particular country. In a minority of countries, aid was also made available for overseas students. More detail of these financial support programmes for students can be found in the study of the European Commission, Eurydice European Unit (1999). The special internationalisation fund established by the Danish Ministry in 1987, provides for student scholarships to study abroad, international networking, language courses etc. The possibility of transferring student support abroad, which has existed in Denmark since the 1950s in relation to the Nordic countries, has since been extended to countries world-wide. Since 1988, Danish students can take their grants abroad for recognised studies for a period of up to four years, while first and second cycle students in France benefiting from a grant awarded on social criteria, can take this grant abroad for studies in any EU and EFTA/EEA Member State. The length of time for which Austrian students can take their national financial aid abroad has been extended from two to four semesters in 1994. State aid for Swedish students enrolled at an institution in Sweden has been transferable to courses abroad since 1989. For Spanish students the portability of grants has been, since 1996, limited to studies recognised in Spain and authorised by the Spanish home university. For students of the Flemish Community of Belgium this transfer is possible for studies in the Netherlands. In Italy, the Netherlands, Austria and Finland, additional grants were also made available for students studying abroad. In the Flemish Community of Belgium and in France, financial aid to students in relation to the Erasmus programme is often supplemented by the Community or the local authorities respectively. Till 1999, Austria has been offering incoming students who were not on any of the numerous scholarship programmes, financial aid towards the end of their study period in order to enable them to finish their studies and obtain a degree. Due to budgetary restrictions this form of grant will no longer be available as of the academic year 1999/2000. In Finland, support in the form of housing was extended to some students coming from abroad.

6.2.5. OTHER MEASURES TO PROMOTE STUDENT EXCHANGES

Finally, governments introduced a number of other changes at national level to encourage the movement of students in Denmark, Germany, Spain, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria, the United Kingdom and Iceland during the period studied. The majority of these involved changes to course structures, to attract students from abroad or to encourage students to spend short periods abroad. In Germany and Austria, where first degree courses are lengthy, the national governments have recently promoted new, shorter courses aimed at foreign students: Bachelor's and Master's degrees in Germany (1997) and Master of Advanced Studies or Master of Business Administration in Austria (1997). When implementing the 1992/93 degree reforms, many French universities opted for an organisation of the curriculum which facilitates European-wide inter-university exchanges. Study regulations for certain degree courses, for instance, were rewritten to allow for the validation of certain subjects studied abroad. In Iceland, new postgraduate courses have been organised since 1994 where students are expected to spend part of their course abroad, sometimes in the context of the Erasmus programme.

In the United Kingdom, the Government first published an annual guide to higher education opportunities in Europe in 1992, which is distributed to students applying for university through schools, careers offices and libraries.

Although recognising the importance of internationalisation, Portugal has so far not been able to fully develop this aspect, due to capacity restrictions in higher education. There are nevertheless initiatives to promote participation in Erasmus and various research programmes especially in fields which are underrepresented in Portuguese higher education. Special emphasis is also placed on cooperation with African Portuguese-speaking countries. The changes reported by Greece were focused mainly on initiatives to bring Greek higher education up to European levels and to open it up to external influences.

6.3. INSTITUTIONAL INITIATIVES

In Chapter 1: Legislation for Change, it was noted that despite the apparent importance of internationalisation in higher education policy, it was not specifically a subject of legislation or published policy in the majority of participating countries. This is primarily because, in most countries, the policy of internationalisation is determined at institutional level. It is the institutions and their staff who set up and maintain the links and networks necessary for successful international collaboration and who host foreign exchange students. During the 1990s, institutions in many countries have centralised and coordinated such individual links into structured programmes and many have drawn up bilateral agreements with institutions in other countries which cover joint research, exchanges of students and teaching staff and often, joint courses and curriculum planning. Many of these initiatives were supported and stimulated by the government strategies described above, but implementation was the responsibility of the institutions.

Due to their involvement in research work and in postgraduate research training, universities were initially best placed to develop international links. However, in many of the countries with a binary higher education system like the French and Flemish Communities of Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Greece, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal, Finland and Norway, the non-university institutions have also developed an international focus during the 1990s. In Germany, some *Fachhochschulen* have been very successful in attracting more students by developing an international profile. A major focus of the changes since 1980 has been the expansion of exchange programmes for students, as well as early attempts to internationalise curricula. In the Flemish Community of Belgium all *hogescholen* but one have an approved Socrates/Erasmus institutional contract. The number of outgoing students has doubled in the last four years and there is still potential for further growth.

The main institutional strategies to stimulate internationalisation and adopted since 1980 are shown in Table 6.2. The precise dates when these were introduced were rarely available but most changes took place during the late 1980s and 1990s.

Table 6.2: Institutional initiatives for internationalisation since 1980

	B fr	B nl	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK		IS	LI	NO
International offices/administrators		94	87	●			●		●		●	87	●	●	●	●		●		●
Language courses for foreign students and/or those going abroad		●	●	●	●	●	●		●		●	●	●	●	●	●		●		●
Courses given in foreign languages		●	●	●	●						●	●		●	●			●		●
Intergration and support for foreign students				●					●		●	●	●	●	●	●		●		
Internationalisation of mainstream courses and curricula		●		●	●		●		●		96	97		●	●					

Source: Eurydice

● Precise year not reported

6.3.1. INTERNATIONAL OFFICES OR ADMINISTRATORS

A visible indicator of an institution's commitment to internationalisation is the establishment of an international office or administrator, although their functions may vary. Some deal mainly with information and support for students, while others have a wider coordinating role for institutional participation in multilateral agreements and EU programmes.

In the Flemish Community of Belgium, every university and *hogeschool* has established a *dienst internationale betrekkingen* (service for international relations) to provide administrative support for the development of international contacts and relations. The two biggest Danish universities, the University of Copenhagen and the University of Aarhus centralised their international activities in 1987 and 1990 respectively by establishing an international office to run the university's extensive international network. In Germany, the *Akademische Auslandsämter* (offices for studies abroad) were established at nearly all universities and *Fachhochschulen* to provide advice and information to German and foreign students on degree courses, individual disciplines, admission requirements, funding and organisational matters related to studying abroad. These offices, together with the foreign languages departments of the higher education institutions, also organise foreign language courses for students going abroad. In Italy, every university has established a unit for international relations to support international contacts and participation in EU programmes. By 1990, every Dutch university and most *hogescholen* had established a *Bureau Buitenland* (office for international relations). At the national level, the *Nuffic* (the Netherlands Organisation for International Cooperation in Higher Education) provides administrative support and acts as an intermediary for international contacts and relations. Since the mid-1980s, Austrian universities and the universities of art and music have set up *Auslandsbüros* (international relations offices), while in *Fachhochschulen* this function is performed by the director of each course of study. These offices advise students and teaching staff on international exchange programmes and administer applications for grants to study abroad. They are also the coordinators of EU and other exchange programmes. In Sweden and Norway, most higher education institutions have drawn up internationalisation plans and usually have one or more administrators dealing with issues relating to internationalisation. The posts for administrators were created before 1980 and institutions were able to receive special 'internationalisation grants' to meet part of the cost of these activities. With the continued decentralisation of the higher education system in the late 1980s and early 1990s, these earmarked sums were included in the general funding of institutions. However, it was stressed that institutions should ensure continued adequate funding for internationalisation activities. Similarly, since the 1980s, universities in the United Kingdom have appointed international officers or advisers who coordinate the often extensive network of links for international exchanges and ensure that the needs of international students are addressed. Most institutions now have specialist staff dealing with international student services.

6.3.2. LANGUAGE COURSES AND COURSES DELIVERED IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Since the 1980s, intensive language courses for students going to study abroad or for incoming foreign students have been made available, or their provision increased by higher education institutions in the Flemish Community of Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Greece, Spain, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal, Finland, Sweden, United Kingdom, Iceland and Norway. As a consequence of the reciprocity principle of the Erasmus programme, a number of countries have begun to offer higher education courses delivered in foreign languages, often English. Countries whose institutions offer such courses include the Flemish Community of Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Greece, the Netherlands, Austria, Finland, Sweden, Iceland and Norway.

6.3.3. INTEGRATION AND SUPPORT FOR FOREIGN STUDENTS

Other changes were made by institutions in Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Iceland to integrate and support foreign students. In Germany, some *Studentenwerke* (student social affairs organisations) have offered 'full service packages' covering accommodation, insurance etc. since 1997. Since 1998, the Federal Ministry for Foreign Affairs has encouraged the integration of foreign students by offering a sizeable cash award to individuals and institutions in Germany involved in projects and initiatives aimed at improving the daily life of foreign students. In Austria and the Netherlands, many universities and colleges of art offer special orientation programmes or 'welcome days' for foreign students on exchange programmes. In Sweden and Finland, in addition to different kinds of support offered by the institutions, the student unions at many institutions play an important role in the integration and support of foreign students. In the United Kingdom, the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals (CVCP) and the British Council/Education Counselling Service have published codes of practice on the recruitment and support of international students in UK higher education. The codes give advice to institutions on the information which should be provided for students, including the academic and non-academic support services students can expect.

6.3.4. INTERNATIONALISATION OF CURRICULA

During the 1990s, the internationalisation process began to have an effect on curricula, influencing both courses specialising in international issues and mainstream courses. Many institutions recognised the value of including an international dimension into their mainstream higher education courses by reviewing the content of the curriculum and by adapting the course structure to allow for international exchanges to be included. Such reform was often stimulated by government policies and supported by special funding.

The establishment of systems for joint international curriculum planning by groups of higher education institutions in several countries may be seen as a counterbalance to the trend towards increased decentralisation of course planning noted in Chapter 5: Curriculum and Teaching. However, such systematic collaboration has been developed in only a few countries including France and the Netherlands. In 1990, the French Ministry of Higher Education and Research decided to create, in the larger cities, *pôles d'excellence* (centres of excellence) or *pôles européens* (European centres) involving several universities. These centres were set up as a tool to develop cooperation among institutions and to pool some of their resources in the field of research and student exchanges. In the Netherlands, a government fund was set up in 1997 to support the development of consortia of *hogescholen* with similar institutions abroad. These consortia were intended to work towards developing curricula for joint courses as well as regulating the mutual recognition of course units and exchanges of staff and students.

Sweden, rather than including a study period abroad in its higher education programmes, opted for the integration of an international dimension into the curricula. In the 1960s, pilot projects were carried out with the aim of adding an international orientation to degree programmes by including foreign language study and traineeships abroad. Furthermore, international relations courses and Eastern European studies as well as peace and conflict research were actively promoted. When institutions were given greater responsibility for course structure and content in the early 1990s, many started to include or focus on international issues and aspects.

The Flemish Community of Belgium introduced some of the principles of the ECTS into its higher education courses in order to facilitate adaptation to study programmes in other European countries and to ease recognition of study periods abroad. In Germany, it was recognised by the *Wissenschaftsrat* (Science Council) in 1992, that despite the expansion of international exchange programmes the majority of students would not get an opportunity to study abroad. The introduction of an international or European dimension to mainstream courses was seen as a way of producing 'virtual mobility' among students, and institutions were encouraged to develop internationalised curricula in line with OECD guidelines. Supported by the Erasmus programme and the European office of *DAAD*, internationalised curricula were introduced in many universities and *Fachhochschulen* where they met acceptance by students. The course structure reform, promoted in particular by the 1998 amendment to the Higher Education Framework Act, and the introduction of international first and second degree courses have created highly improved conditions for studies abroad. In Greece, university curricula have been modified over the last few years to expand their European dimension, especially in relation to European history and culture, economics and law. Austria's University Studies Act of 1997 gives considerable responsibility to the institution-based curricular committees to include an international element in the curriculum of all study courses and to promote student mobility and the transfer of study attainments abroad.

Other changes aimed at giving a more prominent role to internationalisation in mainstream courses included the restructuring of courses and assessment procedures in order to produce shorter modules assessed according to a credit system. As discussed in Chapter 5: Curriculum and Teaching, the division into shorter modules favours the transfer of study attainments between institutions at home and abroad.

6.4. OVERVIEW OF REFORMS

In all participating countries, higher education has become more international, or, at least, more European, during the period under consideration. This is partly a result of the success of EU action programmes on collaborative research and exchange of students, and partly the desire of governments to improve their economic competitiveness by ensuring more students acquire the linguistic skills and knowledge to operate effectively in an international environment. Similarly, institutions have welcomed the opportunity to raise their status and the quality of their research and teaching by collaborating with institutions in other countries.

The nature and focus of links between the participating countries has changed during the period under review from research collaboration set up by individuals, to the introduction of government and institution-led initiatives for students and staff exchanges, to the review of course structure and content, in order to take account of the growing importance of international issues and aspects. The major development observed in most countries has been a significant increase in the number of students going to study abroad, some as part of EU programmes, but the majority independently. The OECD document on the internationalisation of higher education (1996) argued that internationalisation had moved into the mainstream of the curriculum and administrative systems at many universities and that this trend was expected to continue well into the next century. The evidence of the present study is that internationalisation has certainly become a component of planning and administration in higher education institutions in all participating countries. However, the process of upgrading non-university institutions in many countries, discussed in Chapter 5: Curriculum and Teaching, has probably also led to a more international orientation on the part of these institutions.

Internationalisation of the curriculum and student exchanges have been more prominent factors in certain study programmes, like foreign languages, business studies, engineering, law, natural and social sciences as well as programmes in international and European studies. The OECD (1996) also observed an increase in the internationalisation of the curricula of economics and technological courses in parallel with the increasing internationalisation of the labour market for graduates of such courses.

The Netherlands and Germany emerged as the countries with the earliest and most comprehensive government-led internationalisation policies, developed in parallel with EU programmes. Since 1980, Germany, France and the United Kingdom have extended their already well-established institutional links outside Europe to the European countries. The Nordic countries of Denmark, Finland, Sweden, Iceland and Norway also had extensive strategies in place both at government and institutional level in 1997. They had set up an open higher education area under the Nordplus agreement during the study period which was the focus of much student mobility. In 1997, at the end of the study period, Austria introduced some fundamental institution-led changes to strongly encourage internationalisation of higher education courses. Luxembourg and Liechtenstein have had long traditions of sending students to study abroad.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE PERSPECTIVES

The changing role of higher education in post-war Europe is explained by the shift from production-based to knowledge and information-based societies which encourage all citizens with the necessary intellectual capabilities, independent of their social and economic background, to pursue post-secondary and, in particular, higher education at some stage of their life. This policy of promoting wider participation is based on the knowledge that personal fulfilment in educational terms leads to social cohesion and cultural advancement and that a highly skilled workforce is a prerequisite for sustaining competitiveness in a global market. In line with this observation, the OECD (1998, p. 20) comes to the following conclusion: **'A historic shift is occurring in the second half of the 20th century: tertiary education is replacing secondary education as the focal point of access, selection and entry to rewarding careers for the majority of young people.'**

In the 1980s, recurrent periods of recession brought falling GDPs, high inflation and rising levels of unemployment and many of the countries under review resorted to high interest rates and strict controls on public expenditure. During the 1990s, some countries relied on a further reduction in public spending as a means to meet the Maastricht criteria, the prerequisite for participation in European Monetary Union. The political, economic and social climate began to embrace the notions of self-reliance and competitiveness with the emphasis on quality, efficiency and cost-effectiveness. These developments were accompanied by the globalisation of the economy, the deepening of European integration, major advances and the increased use of information and communications technologies and, in some countries, by moves towards decentralisation and regionalisation.

The motivation for reform in higher education during the past 20 years seems almost entirely rooted in an effort by higher education systems to adapt to their new environment shaped by social, economic and demographic factors.

7.1. CATALYSTS FOR REFORM IN HIGHER EDUCATION

7.1.1. INCREASE IN DEMAND

The increased participation in higher education has been the result of the democratisation of access on the one hand and the growing need of the economy for a highly skilled workforce on the other. The increased intake of students has had a marked influence on the diversity of students, now recruited from a variety of social, cultural and educational backgrounds and entering or re-entering higher education at different stages of their lives. In the context of life-long learning, a large proportion of adults can now be expected to participate in higher education at some stage of their life and their motivation might be career advancement, professional reorientation, taking advantage of educational opportunities missed earlier in life or just personal interest in a particular field. The new diversity in student intake has forced and will continue to force institutions to redesign their course offer and learning pathways to suit the varied expectations and life-styles of their student body. The emergence of a vast range of new study options and combinations during the period studied, as well as the rising number of courses of a flexible and modular design with their related credit transfer schemes, are vivid proof of this development.

Although the main surge of higher education expansion in most participating countries pre-dates this study, during the 1980s and 1990s, all have tried to open higher education to previously underrepresented groups such as adults with non-traditional or vocational qualifications. The rise in higher education participation was particularly pronounced in Spain, Ireland and Portugal during the last two decades, with Greece, the United Kingdom and Iceland showing a big increase during the 1990s. In most countries, these increases are projected to continue into the 21st century, although in the Belgian French Community, Germany and the Netherlands, demand for higher education began to level out during the 1990s.

7.1.2. RESTRICTIONS ON PUBLIC SPENDING

Since the State was and still is the main provider of educational funding in all participating countries, the cuts in public spending discussed also had repercussions for higher education. In an effort to compromise neither the quality nor the volume of higher education provision, most countries concentrated on improving its efficiency by achieving a higher return on the financial and human capital deployed. It was generally recognised that the best way to increase efficiency was to place institutional administration into the hands of those most affected by its decisions, that is, the members of the academic and student communities. This meant the State withdrawing as much as possible from institutional governance and restricting itself to stating general objectives relating to educational output: number of graduates, standards of academic qualifications and employability of students. This development was described by Neave and Van Vught (1991) as the move away from the 'interventionary' towards the 'facilitatory' state, where the State no longer controls the process but the product of higher education. At the same time, the State generally made institutions more accountable in the use of public funds by comparing their performance against set targets and by intensifying the quality control of educational provision. In some countries, the State has requested or even obliged the business community to contribute its expertise to the running of institutions, the matching of course offers to labour market needs and to monitoring the quality of institutional output.

While making the most efficient use of public funds a priority, institutions have also been encouraged to seek out alternative sources of income. The increase in autonomy allowed institutions to adapt their course offer to student and business needs which, in turn, made it easier for them to approach either community for supplementary funding.

Efficiency is a common reason behind the restructuring of degree courses into distinct cycles and the shortening of the time required to obtain a first degree, witnessed in a number of countries during the period considered. The new structure of two or three successive cycles with their respective qualifications means students can end their studies after the initial degree or continue, possibly at a later point in life, with a more research oriented cycle.

7.1.3. GLOBALISATION OF ECONOMIES

The rapid increase in international economic and cultural relations during the past 20 years has forced countries to strengthen their educational provision in order to maintain or develop their position in a highly competitive environment. The enlargement of the European Union and the establishment of the European Economic Area set the scene for closer cooperation between the countries covered by this study. However the full benefits of a large, competitive market and multi-cultural environment can only be enjoyed if the citizens possess the necessary competence to operate in such an environment. Despite the progress made during the period under review, the internationalisation of the labour market is still lagging behind the globalisation of economies. Various EU action programmes as well as a range of multilateral programmes have tried to correct this situation. By promoting the international dimension of higher education, the participating countries are hoping to create a more flexible and mobile workforce which will strengthen European economic and social cohesion and mutual understanding.

7.1.4. TECHNOLOGICAL PROGRESS

Advances in technology, particulary in information and communications technology (ICT), have penetrated all aspects of life over the past decades and have had an impact not only on curricular content but also on teaching methods. The use of ICT in distance learning was pioneered by the open universities in an effort to recruit students from geographically distant areas or those unable to attend lectures due to other commitments. Its use has proved of great advantage to students wishing to study at their own individual pace and with varying intensity at different intervals of their life. Due to its success in distance learning, IT-aided teaching has now also been accepted by a large number of institutions for teaching on-site students.

7.1.5. DECENTRALISATION

The term decentralisation in this study is used to describe both the transfer of responsibility for higher education administration from the political level (central State or regional entities) to the higher education institutions themselves and the devolution of political decision-making from the central State to the regional authorities. Administrative decentralisation and its motivations as experienced by the great majority of countries during the last two decades have been discussed in the previous sections. The process of political decentralisation was, however, limited to two countries.

In Belgium, the devolution of responsibility for education to the linguistic Communities in 1989 seems to have had greater consequences for the Flemish than the French Community because, until then, the entire higher education system had been based on the French model. The Flemish Community has since adopted a new approach based on increasing cooperation with the Dutch higher education system.

The Spanish Constitution of 1978 created 17 Autonomous Communities and determined the distribution of powers between these Communities and the State. The transfer of powers to the Communities has been a gradual process culminating in the adoption of the 1992 Organic Act, which included the devolution of responsibility for higher education to the Autonomous Communities. For the university sector, with the exception of the National Distance Education University, this transfer of powers has been completed, while for other higher education institutions the devolution process has not been finalised for all Communities. In order to preserve a uniform education system, the State has, however, retained the power to regulate the requirements for obtaining, issuing and recognising academic and professional qualifications and to determine certain requirements for access to higher education.

An interesting trend was observed in France between 1983 and 1985 with the passing of a number of *lois de décentralisation* (decentralisation acts) which transferred the responsibility for upper secondary education and vocational training to the regions. Although the State retained the responsibility for higher education, the regions have since managed to make use of their newly-gained power to influence the development of post-secondary education. In addition, since 1989, as part of the new regional planning policy, the State has encouraged the regions, districts and communes to contribute to the cost of establishing new higher education institutions in their area. This offer was met with great enthusiasm by local authorities because they saw it as a way of influencing the choice of courses offered by institutions established in their area and of promoting closer links with the local economy.

7.2. AREAS OF REFORM IN HIGHER EDUCATION

This section looks at the main areas in higher education which the participating countries identified as in need of reform and the ways in which they reshaped the system to meet the challenges described above. Did they model their reforms on other countries' experiences; did they find similar solutions or did they move in opposite directions?

Due to the fact that all participating countries experienced similar changes to their political and economic environments over the past two decades, their responses to the challenges facing higher education tended to be of a similar nature even if the timing and mechanisms for implementation differed. Generally speaking, there seems to have been a wide-ranging consensus on the objectives of higher education policies but considerable variations in the legal and policy instruments employed by individual countries to implement the desired change. The signing of the Sorbonne Declaration (1998) and the Declaration of Bologna (1999) can be seen as a move towards concerted action among European countries with regard to higher education objectives. These relate to the creation of a European higher education area to improve the external recognition of qualifications and facilitate student mobility and employability. Over and above these objectives, however, such action also has regard to policy measures (inter-institutional cooperation, the introduction of an adequate credit scheme, the promotion of lifelong learning, spending study time abroad) while still stressing the need to respect national differences.

The following is an attempt to identify convergent and divergent trends observed in the participating countries. In some instances, however, a convergent trend has ultimately led to increased divergence, e.g., the increase in institutional autonomy has meant that institutions chose differing approaches to take advantage of their newly gained freedom. In an effort to show the ambiguous nature of some reforms, the underlying convergent trend is discussed in section 2.1 and attention is drawn to the resulting divergent trend in section 2.2.

7.2.1. CONVERGENCE

In this context, the term 'convergence' is used to indicate moves by the participating countries which resulted in their education systems coming closer together. Table 7.1 summarises the principal areas of convergence. It appears to indicate a real moving together of European higher education systems in which almost all countries have participated to a greater or lesser extent. Although there were particular factors which gave countries different positions at the beginning of the period studied and which influenced their progress in different areas, there seem to be definite similarities in the directions they take and signs that progress will continue in future.

Although Table 7.1 shows a large number of convergent trends in higher education there is no evidence that these developments were the result of a concerted approach between participating countries. The convergent education policies seem more likely to be a by-product of the economic and social policies which, in the context of European integration, underwent a deliberate harmonisation process. This is particularly true for measures linked to mass participation in higher education and public spending restrictions, like the development of the non-university sector, widening of access, the review of the student support structure and the introduction of performance-based funding. Reforms relating to course and degree structures and internationalisation, although still motivated by economic factors, are increasingly based on deliberate cooperation between the countries concerned. Such reforms include the introduction of modular course schemes, the promotion of transferability and comparability of qualifications as well as the encouragement of academic mobility.

Table 7.1: Main areas of convergence across the higher education systems

	European Union																EFTA/EEA		
	B fr	B nl	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO
Structure of higher education (HE)																			
establishment of a vocational non-university sector	✸	✸	✸	✸	▲	▲	✸	✸	▲	✸	✸	▲	▲	▲			✸	▲	✸
upgrading of certain post-secondary courses to HE	▲	▲			▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲			▲	▲	✸	▲	▲	▲	▲
subdivision of degree courses in 2 to 3 distinct cycles			▲	○		▲			○		○	○	▲	▲	▲	✸	✸	○	
establishment of open universities and distance learning		▲	▲	✸	▲	✸	✸	▲			▲		▲	✸	✸	✸	▲		▲
Management and Control																			
increase in institutional autonomy																			
• internal governance	✸	▲	▲	✸	▲	▲	▲	✸	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	✸	✸	▲	▲	▲
• budget spending																			
block grants	✸	✸	▲	○	▲	▲	▲	✸	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	✸	✸	▲	▲	▲
formula-based funding	✸	✸	✸	○	▲	▲	▲	✸	▲	▲	✸		▲	▲	✸	✸	▲	▲	▲
funding by teaching contracts		▲	▲		▲	▲	▲	✸	○	▲	▲	✸	▲	✸		✸	▲	▲	▲
tuition/registration fees paid by students	✸	✸				✸	✸		✸		✸		✸			▲	✸	✸	
• course planning	▲	▲	▲		▲	▲		▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	✸			▲
increased emphasis on quality control																			
• nationally defined system of quality control		▲	▲		▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
closer links with economic environment																			
• participation on governing/supervisory bodies	▲	▲	▲	○		▲	▲	▲		▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
• participation in quality assessment		▲	▲	▲		▲	▲	▲	▲			▲	▲	▲	▲	▲			
Access and Wastage																			
access for students with vocational qualifications	▲		✸	▲		✸	▲		✸		▲	▲		▲	✸	▲			
access to on-site HE for students w/o traditional qualifications	▲		✸	▲		✸	✸	▲			✸	✸	✸	✸	✸	✸	✸	▲	✸
information and guidance for new recruits	✸	▲	✸	✸		✸	▲	✸	▲			▲		✸	✸	▲		▲	
Curriculum and Teaching																			
modular credit-based course structure		▲	▲	○	▲	▲	✸	▲	○		▲			▲	✸	▲	▲	▲	▲
closer links with labour market	▲		▲		▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲		▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	
increased use of ICT		▲	▲	▲		▲	▲	▲			▲		▲	▲	▲	▲	▲		▲
work experience as course element	▲	▲		▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	
Internationalisation																			
promotion of student and staff mobility	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
promotion of an international dimension in course planning		▲	▲	▲	▲						▲	▲		▲	▲				▲
financial and other support for studies abroad		▲	✸	✸		▲			▲	✸	▲	▲		✸	▲	▲	✸	✸	✸

Source: Eurydice.

✸ Introduced before 1980 and still valid

▲ Introduced between 1980 and 1998

○ Planned introduction or reinforcement after 1998

7.2.1.1. Structure of higher education

The restructuring of higher education was one of the most active areas of reform originally linked to the expansion of higher education in terms of numbers and diversity of student intake. Most countries tried to satisfy the immediate need for places in higher education by building more universities and by expanding or creating a vocationally oriented non-university sector. By 1980, the majority of countries under consideration had recognised the growing need for higher education courses to provide skilled manpower in the technical and commercial field. With the research-centred universities reluctant or unable to offer such courses these countries decided to create a vocational/technological non-university higher education sector. During the period of study, seven more countries followed their example and introduced a binary divide into their higher education systems to better serve the diverse interests and ambitions of their student population as well as the needs of the labour market.

To further stress the importance of vocational programmes, a number of countries decided to upgrade certain courses previously taught at secondary level to form part of the non-university higher education sector. In particular, this was true for teacher training for primary level, physical education, art and music, as well as some paramedical professions. Many of these institutions were granted similar levels of autonomy and put on the same legal footing as universities and/or their qualifications granted the same status.

The upgrading and lengthening of non-university courses on the one hand and the shortening and sub-division of initial degree courses at universities on the other, have led to similar first degree structures in both sectors. Various factors were instrumental in this development. First, there was the universities' wish to better cater for students who considered higher education as a preparation for entry to the job-market rather than the basis of a career in research. In 1980, university degree courses in many European countries still had a notional length of five years full-time study. Valuable resources were being wasted when students - already well into their study programmes - realised they had made the wrong choice and were forced to abandon their studies without appropriate certification of their study attainments. Another factor was the educational establishment's wish to give official recognition to the growing importance of the non-university sector by raising its status, as has been discussed already. Part of this process involved the lengthening of courses and the introduction of qualification structures equivalent to those at universities. Another major influence according to Neave (1996, p.31) was the adoption of the Council Directive 89/48/EEC regarding a general system for the recognition of higher education diplomas awarded on completion of professional education and training of at least three years' duration. It confers the right to take up or pursue a regulated profession in any Member State to all holders of diplomas confirming successful completion of a post-secondary course of at least three years' duration or its part-time equivalent at higher education institutions in any of the Member States. The continuing trend of dividing higher education programmes into two or three separate cycles (first or Bachelor's degree, Master's and doctoral degree) is highlighted by the Sorbonne Declaration and the Declaration of Bologna which both support the adoption of a system essentially based on two main cycles. The first cycle should last a minimum of three years and provide graduates with qualifications relevant to the European labour market.

Another important change on the higher education landscape was the introduction of distance learning and open universities. These played an invaluable role in expanding access to people with non-traditional qualifications and to those unable to attend on-site courses due to lack of time or transport. Thanks to their flexible course structure, they enable a very diverse student body to study a vast range of subject combinations within varying time scales. Courses are split into units or modules and a certain number of credits awarded on completion of each module. The student is free to complete only a single module or to continue and accumulate sufficient credits for the award of a degree. The advantages of this flexible course structure were soon recognised by other institutions wishing to attract students interested in a (multidisciplinary) education obtained at more than one institution by varying curricular pathways and within a time frame set by personal priorities. Since university and non-university institutions both make use of modular credit-based courses, student transfer between the two sectors has been greatly facilitated, encouraging a further rapprochement of the two.

All of the above-mentioned structural reforms are consistent with the desire to promote life-long learning since, in view of rapid technological advancement, economies will only remain competitive if their workforce keeps updating and upgrading its skills.

7.2.1.2. Management, finance and control

The granting of greater autonomy to institutions, particularly in institutional governance, budget spending and course planning was intended to encourage an entrepreneurial spirit and thus promote efficiency, cost-effectiveness, flexibility and quality in educational provision. At the same time, institutions were encouraged to seek additional funding through bids for government contracts and the sale of their research and teaching services or, in certain countries, by attracting fee-paying students. Public authorities, in their role as political decision-makers and the main providers of funds, continued to determine overall priorities and goals through funding programmes and kept a close eye on the results via reinforced control mechanisms. In the majority of countries, they did however no longer interfere with the institutions' choice of instruments to comply with the stated targets.

Although the desirability of increasing institutional autonomy appears to have been accepted by all the participating countries, the resultant change in the culture of universities has been difficult for some. Previously, a loosely-knit guild of individuals had considerable power over teaching and research in their particular discipline. Developments aimed at the creation of centralised, institutional management with strategic planning capacities. Germany, France, Italy and Austria appear to have made least progress in this area and much control remains with public authorities on the one hand, and with individual academics on the other.

In all European countries, the State, represented by central or regional government, is the most important provider and sponsor of higher education. Increasing overall cost of higher education, accompanied by restrictions in public spending, have led governments to reconsider their financial arrangements with individual institutions. In the past, the size of institutional budgets was largely decided by the State and funds were allocated strictly by budget lines (salaries, equipment, maintenance, etc.). In line with the trend towards more institutional autonomy, most countries progressed to the allocation of block grants during the period under review which gave institutions considerable freedom in setting their own spending priorities for the funds allocated by the authorities. Some countries linked funding to input, such as the number of entrants or courses offered, others based it on output, such as the numbers of graduates or the number of exams passed and qualifications obtained.

As mentioned before, the trend towards increased institutional autonomy was accompanied by the establishment of tighter control procedures in order to make institutions more accountable for the use of public funds. By 1997, all countries participating in this study, except the French Community of Belgium, had introduced some form of nationally (in Germany at *Land* level) defined quality assessment system. Evaluations are carried out jointly by the institutions and the academic community. Some countries take into account the views of students and even fewer seek the opinion of the business community. All countries except Liechtenstein, where the size of the higher education sector forbids such a move, have established a central monitoring agency for the coordination, supervision, verification or follow-up of the nation-wide evaluation process.

The increase in institutional autonomy linked to the drive for cost-effectiveness has often strengthened the links between higher education institutions and the business community. In an effort to reinforce their managerial know-how, institutions invited, or were obliged by the public authorities to recruit, members of the business community onto their management teams, or else consulted them. This, together with the institutions' intention to become more responsive to the needs of students and the business community, resulted in a growing number of institutional links with the local economy. This trend was particularly pronounced during the 1990s and was more strongly evidenced within the university sector

7.2.1.3. Access and wastage

The issue of efficiency recurs as a reason for the selection of suitable students at entry and for the introduction of measures designed to reduce dropout during study. The better students' profiles are matched with the course offer, the faster students will pass through the educational system, making for the efficient use of human resources in terms of student and teaching staff time and the efficient use of financial resources in terms of lower overall costs. The same is true for study programmes tailored to the needs of the labour market as students will leave the higher education system sooner in favour of employment. As a consequence, during the period of study, most countries increased the range of selection criteria for identifying students best suited for particular programmes, introduced measures to reduce dropout and tried to link the course offer more closely to the social and economic environment, particularly the labour market. The trend towards increased selection at entry, present in the majority of countries, translated into divergent trends at institutional level since most countries place the responsibility for setting selection criteria with the institutions.

It is however interesting to note that all countries which introduced a binary divide during the period under review (Greece, Spain, Italy, Austria, Portugal and Finland) opted for high selectivity in the non-university sector. This, with the exception of Austria and Italy, was matched by the same degree of selectivity in the university sector.

Dropout is not necessarily a measure of academic underachievement, but sometimes a deliberate decision taken by students for professional or family reasons. To accommodate this, the introduction of modular course structures and the subdivision of programmes accompanied by new intermediate qualifications must again be considered in relation to increasing completion rates.

The most pronounced trend with respect to access and wastage was to widen access for students with vocational qualifications and mature-age students, in particular those without traditional qualifications such as an upper secondary leaving certificate. This trend together with the fact that the majority of higher education places during the period considered were created in the vocationally oriented non-university sector could be seen as confirmation of the move observed in many countries towards raising the status of vocational education at secondary and higher education level.

7.2.1.4. Financial aid to students

Reforms experienced in this area have shown only one convergent trend: the strictest systems have become more lenient while the most lenient ones have tightened up their regulations. Systems which previously granted students support with few enquiries into family income and academic progress were becoming too costly and stricter criteria for the allocation of grants and subsidised loans were adopted. In contrast, other countries which had applied very stringent controls by making both low family income and academic progress preconditions for the award of financial support realised that the system infringed upon the principle of equal opportunities. While the first group of countries aimed to make students and their families with the necessary financial means more responsible for the payment of their educational expenses, the latter group relieved the pressure on students from poorer backgrounds.

7.2.1.5. Curriculum and teaching

The participating countries, faced with a large student population and a shortage of public funds, sought to raise efficiency by increasing institutional autonomy in course planning, as in other areas of higher education. It was an attempt by the State to give institutions the freedom to design and deliver the curriculum (often within the limits of nationally defined guidelines) in the way they saw fit, but at the same time to retain control over the final product by reserving the privilege of giving official recognition to academic qualifications or awarding the right to exercise a profession.

Making institutions responsible for defining their own course structure and content induced a process of curricular renewal, a redefinition of learning pathways and a review of student assessment procedures and degree structures. This has led to the emergence of a great diversity in course offers and teaching methods which could be interpreted as the expression of divergence rather than convergence. Nevertheless, there are many common trends to be found in curricular reform across and within countries. Due to pressure from the student community as well as public authorities, institutions in all countries were forced to adapt their course offer to the needs of the labour market. This was particularly true for university courses as the non-university sector already had a tradition of close cooperation with the labour market. Closer links with economic life were also a motivation behind the inclusion of work experience in a growing number of university programmes.

Over the past two decades this interaction between institutions and the surrounding economies has led to a fruitful cross-fertilisation of ideas between the academic and business communities, with industry being represented on institutional governing boards, institutions offering their research and teaching services to industry, increased importance attached to work placements as a course element and better employment prospects for graduates.

As discussed in the section on structural reforms, higher education systems requiring the student's full-time presence at a specific institution for a certain number of years were found to be incompatible with the promotion of life-long learning in the majority of participating countries. During the past few decades, these structures have slowly started to give way to more flexible course design where programmes are divided into modules and study attainments are recognised in the form of credits. These are awarded on completion of each module and can be accumulated over an unlimited period until their number warrants the award of a degree. A very important aspect of these credit schemes is their transferability between study programmes, institutions and/or countries. The accreditation of work experience gained either prior to or during the time of study is further proof of the increased flexibility of higher education systems in terms of access and recognition of learning pathways provided by economic life.

7.2.1.6. Internationalisation

Any reforms in this area of higher education are by definition convergent in nature. Aspects of higher education most affected by internationalisation were course structure and content. Higher education institutions in all participating countries have redesigned some of their courses and given them a modular structure, included lectures in foreign languages, made a study period abroad compulsory and/or introduced credit schemes allowing the transfer of study attainments between institutions at home and abroad. This has been done to enable students to benefit from an education with a truly international dimension, which will equip them for a successful professional career in a multi-lingual, multi-cultural economic area. A number of countries have extended their financial aid schemes to studies abroad or are offering incoming students financial and other support.

Since 1980, the internationalisation of higher education has changed from a process mainly based on collaborative research between individual academics to a systematic network of cooperation orchestrated by institutions, governments and the European institutions. At the same time, this process has been extended to cover a larger number of institutions in the university and non-university sectors.

In 1999, current European-wide cooperation culminated in the signing of the Declaration of Bologna when 29 countries agreed to establish a European area of higher education and agreed on convergent policies aimed at reaching this goal.

7.2.2. DIVERGENCE

Although the main trends in higher education policies as reported by the participating countries seem to point in the direction of convergence, some divergent approaches have been noted. Only the future will show if individual countries' actions going against the present tide will in the long run turn out to be precursors of new convergent tendencies.

7.2.2.1. Structure of higher education

As seen earlier, one of the major common tendencies in higher education was the establishment of two separate sectors, a more research-oriented university sector and a more vocationally-oriented non-university sector. Only three of the countries reviewed have unitary higher education systems: Sweden, United Kingdom and Iceland. Although Iceland maintained its unitary structure throughout the period studied, the lack of special infrastructure for non-university institutions has been felt to be a limiting factor for further diversification of vocational higher education. A process of merging small non-university institutions into larger entities at university level was started in the late 1990s. The intention was to create a higher education system consisting entirely of university level institutions, differing only in their research responsibilities. Sweden had already abolished the distinction between universities and university colleges in 1977, a decision reflecting the view that all higher education is of equal importance for the economy and should prepare students for their working life. The only remaining difference at the time, was that universities continued to receive funds for research and postgraduate education which were denied to the university colleges. Gradually, this distinction was abolished and university colleges were given funds for research and a couple of them now even offer postgraduate courses in specific disciplines. In the United Kingdom, the 1992 Further and Higher Education Act allowed non-university institutions, subject to satisfying certain criteria, to adopt the title university. This offer was taken up by a large number of institutions, mainly polytechnics, which are commonly referred to as the 'new' universities. Although all higher education institutions offer a broad range of courses, the 'new' universities generally offer a wider range of courses leading to the professional qualifications recognised by professional bodies.

7.2.2.2. Management, finance and control

The main focus of reform in this area was the increase in the autonomy of institutions. The State, however, tended to retain most influence in the areas of development planning and staffing, and in Austria and Iceland continued to own buildings and equipment used by higher education institutions. The German *Länder* have so far retained their responsibility in relation to budgetary matters, although some of them are giving financial autonomy to their institutions under pilot projects. Despite the fact that the 1998 *Hochschulrahmengesetz* (Higher Education Framework Act) allowed for the introduction of block grants and formula-based funding, these funding methods have not yet been adopted by all the individual *Länder*.

The students' contribution to institutional funding in the form of tuition fees has been the subject of few reforms during the period under consideration, with the general trend pointing towards an increase in fees. The United Kingdom argued that students should bear part of the cost of an education considered beneficial to their personal and professional future and was the only country which introduced tuition fees borne by students during the period under review. The decision by two German *Länder* to introduce enrolment fees must be considered an innovative action in the German higher education landscape, but cannot be interpreted as a reform when applying the definition used by this study. Ireland on the other hand did take a singular action when, in 1995, it began to phase out tuition fees charged to students. The argument in favour of this decision was that the make-up of the student population was still biased in favour of students from privileged socio-economic backgrounds.

The increased financial autonomy of institutions has in all countries been accompanied by stricter externally-determined control procedures. The only region which has not yet introduced such a centrally-determined quality assessment system is the French Community of Belgium.

The inclusion of business representatives on the governing boards of institutions is a trend observed in all participating countries, with the exception of some *Länder* in Germany, and Greece and Italy. This obviously convergent trend supported by the increase in institutional autonomy could however, in the long run, create divergent administrative approaches among institutions. The likelihood of such divergence is even greater considering that, in future, the higher education environment will become more competitive and institutions will have to clearly distinguish themselves from their competitors in an effort to attract students and sponsors.

7.2.2.3. Access and wastage

By 1996/97, all countries had in one way or another limited access to higher education via different selection procedures applied at entry. Belgium is still the only country to grant open access to its non-university sector, while Austria and Luxembourg do not see the need to check the suitability of applicants for particular university programmes as long as they fulfil the basic entry requirements. The argument that the selection procedures might differ more in future is again based on the fact that, in the majority of countries, it is the institutions' responsibility to determine the selection criteria.

As far as the university sector is concerned, Spain was the only country to tighten selection at entry as it had not been able to match the surge in student numbers with higher education places. Denmark and Norway, in contrast, have been able to sufficiently increase the places available on the most popular courses to warrant a diminution of selectivity at entry. Greece is also planning to reduce selectivity at entry from the year 2000 when its higher education expansion programme will have taken full effect.

7.2.2.4. Financial aid to students

Some of the countries which have traditionally relied on grants as a means of support for students have tried to supplement or replace these by loans, but the United Kingdom was the only country where students have taken up this offer in significant numbers. In the United Kingdom, the view that graduates as individuals benefited from public investment in higher education more than did society as a whole was one factor involved in the decision to introduce a loans system. This view was also reflected in the decision to introduce tuition fees, taken in 1998 and the planned abolition of grants in 1999/2000.

The award of grants is still linked to the parents' or spouses' levels of income in most countries with only 4 countries (Denmark, partly in the Netherlands, Finland and Sweden) abolishing this link in the period under consideration. Interestingly, not a single country offering grants has moved in the opposite direction and started linking them to these incomes.

7.2.2.5. Curriculum and teaching

As already discussed, there is no doubt that the main directions of change (closer links with the labour market, introduction of more flexible course structures, increased use of ICT and the inclusion of work placements in a growing number of programmes) in this area of higher education have been convergent. Because curricular matters have been increasingly placed in the hands of institutions and teaching has traditionally been their responsibility, curricular reforms have largely increased the diversity of programmes and qualifications offered. Future development seems likely to be marked by even greater diversity. The recurring themes of efficiency and economic relevance have led to closer links between institutions and their economic environment which has led, amongst other things, to course offers being tailored to the requirements of the local labour market, further reinforcing differentiation.

7.3. FUTURE PERSPECTIVES

The plans for future developments communicated by the participating countries suggest the reinforcement of already existing trends rather than any major turn-around in higher education reform. The tendency is one of deliberate convergence in an effort to create a European higher education space.

On careful analysis of the documents published at national and European level concerned with the future development of European higher education, the following major trends emerge:

- promotion of the interaction between higher education and the economy
- promotion of the economic relevance of higher education programmes
- promotion of quality assurance with the help of relevant quality indicators
- promotion of the mobility of students and academic staff
- promotion of life-long learning by making higher education accessible at all stages of life
- division of higher education programmes into distinct cycles whereby
    - the first cycle (Bachelor's degree) is a multidisciplinary, general cycle preparing students for entry to the labour market
    - the second cycle (Master's degree) offers specialised knowledge in a research oriented environment
    - the third cycle (doctoral studies) is purely research oriented
- enhancement of the system of credits for the recognition of study attainments
- increase in the transferability of credits between institutions, higher education sectors and countries
- enhancement of the readability and comparability of higher education qualifications.

Most countries give top priority to the deepening of interaction between higher education, economic life and society as a whole. Institutions are expected to contribute to the development of the local economy, which in turn will be able to offer employment to their graduates. In France and Iceland in particular, regions are keen to attract new institutions into the area in support of social and economic development. It follows that, in future, the economic relevance of the course offer can be expected to be subject to closer scrutiny.

Another important issue, particularly in Spain, Italy, Portugal and Finland, is the further development and restructuring of the non-university sector to respond to the economies' need for highly-trained specialists in technological and commercial fields. The further rapprochement of the university and non-university sectors is a stated aim in Greece and France.

Austria and France are both planning to follow the example of the majority of countries and increase institutional autonomy. This will be linked to a revision of the funding mechanisms in both countries. Austria, for its part, is planning to follow the prevailing trend and introduce performance-based funding. Iceland is the only other country where the introduction of tuition fees is viewed positively.

The autonomy of universities in defining curricula is only just starting to emerge in Italy. Further developments are expected but will depend on the success of the current reform which is being hindered by part of the academic establishment.

With the creation of the new Ministry for Higher Education, Research and Culture, Luxembourg plans to further expand and reform its higher education sector. The promotion of higher education amongst school-leavers and an extended offer of postgraduate studies are high on the agenda.

The wish to create a learning society is high on the agenda in many countries. The Nordic countries and the United Kingdom, in particular, stress the importance of life-long learning in their future development plans. Institutions will not only be expected to widen access to mature-age students and to make continuing education part of their educational tasks, but they will also have to continue their efforts to make their educational structures more flexible by providing for credit transfer and student mobility. In Spain, some issues concerning university entrance examinations are currently under review.

Many countries stress the importance of further strengthening evaluation procedures in educational provision and also the institutions themselves. The general tendency seems to be one of intensifying and centralising the assessment process.

A few countries have identified areas of concern which need to be addressed in the near future. Ireland, Sweden and the United Kingdom have recognised the weak participation of students from less academic backgrounds or disadvantaged areas and are planning to introduce measures to redress the balance. The proliferation of courses and qualifications offered, the difficulty of assessing their relevance and quality, and the danger that a multiplication of provisions may lead to resource wastage seem to emerge as causes for concern in Denmark and Norway. In France, the rigidity of the system of awarding *diplômes nationaux* (national diplomas) only under study programmes observing very detailed curricular requirements is restricting differentiation in educational provision. This will have to be reviewed in future.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Bundesministerium für Bildung, Wissenschaft, Forschung und Technologie, *Hochschulen für das 21. Jahrhundert*, Bonn, 1997.

Chevaillier, T., 'Moving Away from Central Planning: using contracts to steer higher education in France', in *European Journal of Education*, Vol. 33, No 1, Carfax, Basingstoke, 1998, pp. 65-76.

Commission of the European Communities, *Memorandum on Higher Education in the European Community*, (COM (91) 349 final), Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, Luxembourg, 1991, 46 p.

European Commission, Cooperation in Education in the European Union, 1976-94, *Studies*, No 5, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, Luxembourg, 1994, 84 p., ISBN 92-826-6005-2.

European Commission, *Socrates. European pilot project for evaluating quality in higher education. European Report*, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, Luxembourg, 1996, 62 p.

European Commission, *A guide to higher education systems and qualifications in the EU and EEA countries*, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, Luxembourg, 1998, 890 p., ISBN 92-828-2049-1.

European Commission, Eurydice, *Key Topics in Education, Volume I, Financial Support for Students in Higher Education in Europe. Trends and Debates*, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, Luxembourg, 1999, 260 p., ISBN 92-828-5163-X.

European Commission, Eurydice, Eurostat, *Key data on education in the European Union - 1999/2000*, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, Luxembourg, 2000, 260 p., ISBN 92-828-8537-2.

Eurydice European Unit, *Eurybase: Database on the education systems in Europe*, 1999, on Internet site <http://www.eurydice.org>

Fauroux, R., Charcornac, G., *Pour l'École*, Calmann-Lévy, Paris, 1996, 300 p., ISBN 2-7021-2664-2.

Gellert, C. (ed), Higher Education in Europe, *Higher Education Policy Series*, Vol. 16, Jessica Kingsley, London, 1993, 256 p.

Goedegebuure, L., Kaiser, F., Maassen, P., Van Vught, F. and de Weert, E. (eds.), Higher Education Policy: An International Comparative Perspective, *Issues in Higher Education*, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1994, 362 p., ISBN 0-08-042393-0.

Green, A., University of London, Institute of Education, *Convergences and Divergences in European Education and Training Systems*, Internal report, a research project commissioned by the European Commission, Directorate-General XXII Education, Training and Youth, Institute of Education, London, 1997, 212 p.

Huisman, J., Schrier, E., Vossensteyn, H., 'Exploration de nouvelles voies: la coopération régionale dans le domaine de l'enseignement supérieur', *Enseignement supérieur en Europe*, Vol. XXIII, No 2, UNESCO, Bucarest, 1998, pp. 133-145.

Joint declaration of the European Ministers of Education, convened in Bologna on the 19th of June 1999, 4 p.

Lamo de Espinosa, E., 'The Spanish University in Transition', in Gellert, C. (ed), *Higher Education in Europe*, 'Higher Education Policy Series', Vol. 16, Jessica Kingsley, London, 1993, pp. 84-96.

Luzzatto, G., 'Higher Education in Italy 1985-95: an overview', *European Journal of Higher Education*, Vol. 31, No 3, Carfax, Basingstoke, 1996, pp. 371-378.

Lynn Meek, V., Goedegebuure, L., Kivinen, O., Rinne, R. (eds), The Mockers and Mocked: Comparative Perspectives on Differentiation, Convergence and Diversity in Higher Education, *Issues in higher education*, IAU Press, Oxford, 1996, 239 p., ISBN 0-08-042563-1.

Maiworm Fr., Steube, W., Teichler Ul., Learning in Europe. The Erasmus experience. A survey of the 1988-89 Erasmus Students, *Higher Education Policy Series*, No 14, Jessica Kingsley, London, 1991, 192 p., ISBN 1-85302-527-5.

Moscati, R., *Intended and real changes in Italy's higher education system: the case of engineering and economics*, University of Milano, Milano, 1991, 33 p.

Neave, G., Van Vught, Fr. A. (eds), *Prometheus Bound. The Changing Relationship Between Government and Higher Education in Western Europe*, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1991, 264 p., ISBN 0-008-037246-5.

Neave, G., 'The reform of French higher education, or the Ox and the Toad: a fabulous tale', in Neave, G., Van Vught, Fr. A. (eds), *Prometheus Bound. The Changing Relationship Between Government and Higher Education in Western Europe*, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1991, pp. 65-79.

Neave, G., 'The Politics of Quality: developments in higher education in Western Europe 1992-1994', in *European Journal of Education*, Vol. 29, No 2, Carfax, Basingstoke, 1994, pp. 115-134.

OECD, Internationalisation of higher education, *Documents*, OECD, Paris, 1996, 135 p., ISBN 92-64-15288-1.

OECD, *Redefining Tertiary Education*, OECD, Paris, 1998, 158 p., ISBN 92-64-16055-8.

Scott, P. (ed), *The Globalization of Higher Education. Proceedings of the 1998 Annual Conference of the Society for Research into Higher Education at Lancaster University*, SRHE, Buckingham, 1998, 134 p. ISBN 0-335-20244-6.

The Sorbonne Declaration of the European Ministers of Education on the 25 of May 1998, 1998, 5 p.

Teichler, Ul., 'The Federal Republic of Germany', in Neave, G., Van Vught, Fr. A. (eds), *Prometheus Bound. The Changing Relationship Between Government and Higher Education in Western Europe*, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1991, pp. 29-49.

Velt, R., Fossel, H.-P., Neave, G., *Legislating for Higher Education: Relations between State and Higher Education*, Vol. 1, *Democracy and Governance in Higher Education*, Vol. 2, Kluwer Law International, La Haye, 1998, 199 p., ISBN 90-411-0245-0.

Vossensteyn, H., *CHEPS-monitor: thematic report III. Access: selection and affordability. A comparative analysis of the barriers for entrance in higher education in nine Western European countries*, University of Enschede, Center for Higher Education Policy Studies, Enschede, 1997, 65 p.

Wielemans, W., Vanderhoeven, J.L., 'New tasks and roles for higher education in Belgium and Luxembourg', in Gellert, C. (ed), *Higher Education in Europe*, 'Higher Education Policy Series', Vol. 16, Jessica Kingsley, London, 1993, pp. 152-167.

PART II

National descriptions of higher education reforms between 1980 and 1998

This part is available on CD-ROM

INTRODUCTION

The second part of the study comprises individual descriptions of higher education systems for the fifteen EU Member States and three EFTA/EEA countries. There are two descriptions for both the UK and Belgium, covering the co-existing national systems.

The national descriptions provide an account of the last two decades of developments in higher education in each country, as well as an overview of the current state of play. Compiled by the national EURYDICE units in cooperation with national experts, the descriptions are constructed around the same topics as the comparative analysis in Part I of the study.

The descriptions provide the historical backdrop for reforms, considering country-specific economic, social and political factors. They go on to summarise the most significant changes in each higher education system, examining their motivation, the main policy and legislative instruments employed as well as their effects.

The issues covered include shifts in the approach to institutional governance and funding, changes in student access, the altering of the balance between the university and non-university sectors, internationalisation strategies and future perspectives for the higher education sector in each country.

European Union

Belgium 195
    French Community 200
    Flemish Community 210
Denmark 217
Germany 237
Greece 265
Spain 281
France 311
Ireland 343
Italy 359
Luxembourg 385
Netherlands 397
Austria 419
Portugal 441
Finland 455
Sweden 471
United Kingdom 489
    England, Wales and Northern Ireland 489
    Scotland 513

EFTA/EEA

Iceland 523
Liechtenstein 539
Norway 549

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

EURYDICE EUROPEAN UNIT

Coordinators of the study: Angelika Harvey, with the collaboration of Elizabeth Cassidy

Authors of the comparative analysis: Angelika Harvey, Janet Hunter, Arlette Delhaxhe

	Authors of national descriptions	Checking of the comparative analysis
EUROPEAN UNION		
Belgique/België		
• French Community	Andre Phillipart (Ministère de la Communauté française Direction des Relations Internationales)	Chantal Kaufmann, Richard Martin (Ministère de la Communauté française Direction des Relations internationales)
• Flemish Community	Ides Nicaise (Hoger Instituut voor Arbeid Leuven)	Erwin Malfroy (Ministerie van de Vlaamse Gemeenschap Administratie Hoger Onderwijs en Wetenschappelijk Onderzoek)
Danmark	National unit with assistance from the Ministry's Department of Higher Education	Eurydice National Unit, joint responsibility
Bundesrepublik Deutschland	Klaus Schnitzer (HIS Hochschul-Informations-System, Hannover) Andrae Wolte, (Technische Universität Dresden)	• Bund: Eurydice Unit of the Bund • Länder: Eurydice Unit of the Länder - KMK (Gerdi Jonen, Beatrix Sauter)
Ellada	Antigoni Faragoulitaki (Head of the Greek Eurydice Unit) Theodore Pelagidis (Assistant professor, Panteion University, Athens)	Eurydice National Unit, joint responsibility
España	Irene Arrimadas Gómez, Francisco Ramos Fernández-Torrecilla, CIDE del Ministerio de Educación y Cultura	Irene Arrimadas Gómez, Carmen Morales Gálvez (Eurydice National Unit)
France	Jean-Claude Eicher, Thierry Chevaillier (University of Bourgogne - CNRS)	Joint responsibility between the Eurydice National Unit and the Direction de l'enseignement supérieur
Ireland	Eurydice National Unit, joint responsibility	Eurydice National Unit, joint responsibility
Italia	M. D. Nenci, A. Turchi (Eurydice National Unit) G. Luzzatto, R. Moscati, S. Le Moli (Ministero dell'Università e della Ricerca Scientifica e Tecnologica)	Eurydice National Unit, joint responsibility
Luxembourg	Raymond Harsch (Ministère de la Culture, de l'Enseignement supérieur et de la Recherche)	Eurydice National Unit
Nederland	Drs. Huib J. Plankeel (Ministry of Education, Culture and Science)	Joint responsibility of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science, coordination: Anneke Van Dorp
Österreich	Maria Keplinger, Christine Schneider (Federal Ministry of Science and Transport)	Eurydice National Unit, joint responsibility
Portugal	Pedro Lourtie (Director geral do Ensino Superior)	Eurydice National Unit, joint responsibility

Suomi/Finland	Anita Lehikoinen, Ministry of Education	Eurydice National Unit, joint responsibility
Sverige	Nils Harding (Division for Higher Education, Swedish Ministry of Education and Science)	Nils Harding (Division for Higher Education, Swedish Ministry of Education and Science)
United Kingdom • England, Wales and Northern Ireland • Scotland	 Jenny Loose, Gill Holt (Eurydice Unit) Sue Morris (Eurydice Unit)	 Eurydice Unit, joint responsibility Eurydice Unit, joint responsibility
EFTA/EEA		
Ísland	Arnór Guómundsson, Unnar Hermannsson (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture)	Arnór Guómundsson, Ministry of Education, Science and Culture
Liechtenstein	Hans-Peter Walch (Eurydice National Unit)	Hans-Peter Walch (Eurydice National Unit)
Norge	Gro Beate Vige, Tove Kvil (Ministry of Education, Research and Church Affairs)	Eurydice National Unit, joint responsibility

EURYDICE NETWORK

Editing of the document
Eurydice European Unit
Rue d'Arlon 15
B-1050 Brussels
Tel.: 32-2-238.30.11
Fax: 32-2-230.65.62
E-mail: info@eurydice.org
URL: http://www.eurydice.org

EURYDICE NETWORK UNITS

European Union

BELGIQUE / BELGIË

Unité francophone d'Eurydice
Ministère de la Communauté française
Direction générale des Relations internationales
Bureau 6A/002
Boulevard Leopold II, 44
1080 Bruxelles

Vlaamse Eurydice-Eenheid
Ministerie van de Vlaamse Gemeenschap
Departement Onderwijs
Afdeling Beleidscoördinatie
Hendrik Consciencegebouw 5C13
Koning Albert II - laan, 15
1210 Brussel

Ministerium der deutschsprachigen Gemeinschaft
Agentur Eurydice / Agentur für Europäische Programme
Quartum Centre
Hütte 79 / Bk 28
4700 Eupen

DANMARK

Eurydice's Informationskontor i Danmark
Institutionsstyrelsen
Undervisningsministeriet
Frederiksholms Kanal 25D
1220 Copenhagen

BUNDESREPUBLIK DEUTSCHLAND

Eurydice - Informationsstelle beim
Bundesministerium für Bildung und Forschung
Heinemannstrasse 2
53175 Bonn

Eurydice - Informationsstelle der Länder
im Sekretariat der Kultusministerkonferenz
Lennéstrasse 6
53113 Bonn

ELLADA

Ministry of National Education
and Religious Affairs
Direction CEE - Section C
Eurydice Unit
Mitropoleos 15
10185 Athens

ESPAÑA

Ministerio de Educación y Cultura
CIDE - Centro de Investigación
y Documentación Educativa
Unidad de Eurydice
c/General Oráa 55
28006 Madrid

FRANCE

Unité d'Eurydice
Ministère de l'Éducation nationale, de la Recherche et
de la Technologie
Délégation aux Relations internationales et à la Coopération
Sous-Direction des Relations multilatérales
Bureau des Affaires européennes
Rue de Grenelle 110
75357 Paris

IRELAND

Eurydice Unit
International Section
Department of Education and Science
Marlborough Street
Dublin 1

ITALIA

Ministero della Pubblica Istruzione
Biblioteca di Documentazione Pedagogica
Unità di Eurydice
Via Buonarroti 10
50122 Firenze

LUXEMBOURG
Unité d'Eurydice
Ministère de la Culture, de l'Enseignement supérieur
et de la Recherche (CEDIES)
Route de Longwy 280
1940 Luxembourg

NEDERLAND
Eurydice Eenheid Nederland
Afd. Informatiediensten D073
Ministerie van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschappen
Postbus 25000 - Europaweg 4
2700 LZ Zoetermeer

ÖSTERREICH
Bundesministerium für Unterricht und
kulturelle Angelegenheiten - Abt. I/6b
Eurydice - Informationsstelle
Minoritenplatz 5
1014 Wien

PORTUGAL
Unidade de Eurydice
Ministério da Educação
Departamento de Avaliação,
Prospectiva e Planeamento (DAPP)
Av. 24 de Julho 134
1350 Lisboa

SUOMI / FINLAND
Eurydice Finland
National Board of Education
P.O. Box 380
00531 Helsinki

SVERIGE
Eurydice Unit
Ministry of Education and Science
Drottninggatan 16
10333 Stockholm

UNITED KINGDOM
Eurydice Unit for England, Wales and Northern Ireland
National Foundation for Educational Research
The Mere, Upton Park
Slough, Berkshire SL1 2DQ

Eurydice Unit Scotland
International Relations Branch
Scottish Office Education and Industry Department
Floor 2 Area B Victoria Quay
Edinburgh EH6 6QQ

EFTA/EEA countries

ÍSLAND
Ministry of Education, Science and Culture
Division of Evaluation and Supervision
Eurydice Unit
Sölvhólsgata 4
150 Reykjavík

LIECHTENSTEIN
National Unit of Eurydice
Schulamt
Herrengasse 2
9490 Vaduz

NORGE
Royal Norwegian Ministry of Education,
Research and Church Affairs
Eurydice Unit
P.O. Box 8119 Dep
0032 Oslo

HE

EURYDICE

PROFILE of ...

TWO DECADES OF REFORM IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN EUROPE: 1980 ONWARDS

EDUCATION
AND CULTURE
EUROPEAN
COMMISSION

EURYDICE
The Information Network on Education in Europe

228

228

This document is published by the EURYDICE European Unit with financial support from the European Commission (Education and Culture DG).

Available in DE-EN-FR

D/2000/4008/5
ISBN 2-87116-296-4

The content of this publication may be reproduced in part, except for commercial purposes, provided that the extract is preceded by a complete reference to 'Eurydice, the Information Network on Education in Europe', followed by the date of publication of the document (April 2000).

Request for permission to reproduce the entire document must be made to the European Unit.

EURYDICE
European Unit
Rue d'Arlon 15
B-1050 Brussels

Tel. (32-2) 238 30 11
Fax (32-2) 230 65 62
URL: http://www.eurydice.org
E-mail: info@eurydice.org

The *Profile* series comprises overviews of the studies carried out by the EURYDICE European Unit (EEU) in close collaboration with the National Units of the EURYDICE Network and, in certain cases, external experts.

These summaries are drafted by the EEU which is exclusively responsible for their content.

They are made available in accordance with a policy for publicising the output of EURYDICE in a way that meets a wide variety of information requirements on the part of many different users.

This summary refers to the study: *Two Decades of Reform in Higher Education in Europe: 1980 Onwards*, available from the Eurydice European Unit.

2000, 194 pp. + CD-ROM - ISBN 2-87116-292-1.

CONTENTS

Introduction 5

Motivation for the study 5

A few methodological markers 6

The advent of entrepreneurial culture in higher education 7

Quality: a deepening concern 13

Accommodating a diverse student body 15

Structural renewal of higher education 18

European area of higher education 20

Higher education in the Europe of tomorrow 21

Annex 23

Contents of the study:
Two Decades of Reform in Higher Education in Europe: 1980 Onwards

ABBREVIATIONS

Country codes

EU		European Union
B		Belgium
	B fr	Belgium - French Community
	B de	Belgium - German-speaking Community
	B nl	Belgium - Flemish Community
DK		Denmark
D		Germany
EL		Greece
E		Spain
F		France
IRL		Ireland
I		Italy
L		Luxembourg
NL		Netherlands
A		Austria
P		Portugal
FIN		Finland
S		Sweden
UK		United Kingdom
	E/W	England and Wales
	NI	Northern Ireland
	SC	Scotland
EFTA/EEA		European Free Trade Association/European Economic Area
IS		Iceland
LI		Liechtenstein
NO		Norway

INTRODUCTION

Across all European countries, in the latter half of the 20th century, the dawning realisation that a high level of education had become a prerequisite for the cultural, social and economic welfare of democratic societies led to a keen interest in higher education policy. Supported by the political will for closer European-wide cooperation, the higher education policies of different nations have increasingly been the subject of comparison.

The aim of this Eurydice study, *Two Decades of Reform in Higher Education in Europe: 1980 Onwards*, is to examine reforms in the higher education sector in the fifteen EU Member States and the three EFTA/EEA countries between 1980 and 1998, and to identify the main trends together with the areas of convergence and divergence across the different countries.

MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

In all European countries, rapid technological advances have led to the transition from production-based to knowledge-based societies. In a period when international economic and cultural relations are steadily gaining in importance, a crucial resource for any country in order to maintain its position in a fiercely competitive global market is a highly educated workforce. Equally, education has long since been recognised as central to the social stability characterising prosperous and peaceful nations. Consequently, governments as well as higher education institutions feel the need to examine the experiences of their peers abroad before embarking on significant changes to their own systems. With the deepening of European-wide integration, an understanding of these experiences determines the success of European countries in equipping their citizens for operation in the resulting multi-cultural environment. An enriched insight into such experiences also supports the coordination of European efforts aimed at promoting a system of higher education with a European dimension.

A study of this type, which draws together developments in higher education systems towards the end of the second millennium, examining the specific approaches and mechanisms employed by different countries to reform their systems, is intended to fill a hitherto unmet need for an overview of different national experiences in a European context. It is envisaged that such a study should serve as a useful reference for decision-makers in their search for workable solutions to higher education development issues as well as an informational aid to all those with an interest in the higher education milieu.

In recent years, interest in the issue of convergence across European higher education systems has grown, centring around whether this is a real or perceived phenomenon and, if real, which factors have influenced it. The need to lend direction to this debate by providing a factually based analysis of developments, and one which encompasses all of the EU and EFTA/EEA countries, is another motivation behind the study.

A FEW METHODOLOGICAL MARKERS

The comparative analysis (Part I) of the study summarised in this brochure has been written by the Eurydice European Unit in close cooperation with the National Units of the Eurydice Network and their national experts in the field of higher education. It was prepared on the basis of both extensive consultation with these national partners and the national descriptions (Part II) which they contributed.

For the purposes of this study, higher education was defined as all post-secondary education for which at least an upper secondary school-leaving certificate or equivalent is required and which leads to a higher-level qualification. It comprises courses classified at new ISCED 97[1] levels 5 and 6.

The study undertakes an in-depth exploration of the trends in higher education reform across 18 European countries over the last 20 years by drawing together the legislative and policy instruments deployed in this field and discussing their aims and outcomes. Underlying the study is the recognition that different factors in participating country affected their points of departure and progress in higher education reform throughout the period. However, crucial too is the recognition that all shared the same catalysts for reform emanating from internal as well as wider pressures, such as an increase in demand for higher education, restrictions in public spending, the globalisation of economies and technological advances.

---

[1] International Standard Classification for Education.

In the study, policy documents are defined as policy-formulating instruments, while legislation is considered as a policy-enforcing instrument. While initially setting out the historical, socio-economic, political and demographic background to the evolution of higher education systems during the period, the study proceeds to a closer analysis structured around 5 dimensions of the topic: legislation for change; management, finance and control; access and wastage; curriculum and teaching; and internationalisation.

From this, a synopsis of the general lines of development of higher education systems is derived. This is presented in terms of areas of convergence and divergence across the different countries.

THE ADVENT OF ENTREPRENEURIAL CULTURE IN HIGHER EDUCATION

The granting of greater autonomy to institutions, particularly in institutional governance, budget spending and course-planning was intended to promote an entrepreneurial spirit and thus promote efficiency, cost-effectiveness and flexibility in the light of scarce public resources.

Increase in institutional autonomy

The notion of subsidiarity marking current European political thinking has also had its effect in the sphere of higher education governance. During the two decades examined, governments moved away from prescriptive legislative measures towards the adoption of broader legal frameworks for institutional management issues, thereby moving the locus of decision-making nearer to those directly affected by it.

In practical terms, this increase in autonomy manifested itself in a number of areas. The competencies of senior institutional governing bodies expanded beyond mere internal management into the areas of budget management, staff appointments, external contract management, responsibility for course planning and institutional development strategies.

While related to new political views on decentralisation, the motivation for the shift towards greater institutional empowerment is also partly rooted in economic causes. By empowering higher education institutions, the intention was to create flexibility. Such flexibility would enable the sector to react to the financial conditions arising as a result of restrictions in public spending. It would also facilitate competitiveness and responsiveness to the changing demands of economic life and the workplace by focusing education and research on required new skills and technologies.

The onset of new funding approaches

While certain changes in funding reflect the granting of greater freedom to higher education institutions, others are an expression of the two-pronged government strategy of ensuring equitable distribution of finance while encouraging efficiency and competition. The trend towards funding methods which enabled institutions to determine their own spending priorities, was often coupled with the introduction of formula-based funding approaches relating to input (number of students or courses offered) and, more recently, to output (number of exams passed or degrees awarded). Moreover, almost across the board, institutions were encouraged to seek alternative sources of funding on the open market.

Table 1: Reforms in the financing of higher education and the year the most recent relevant legislation came into force

Country	Awarding of block grants	Formula-based funding		Contract-based funding	Tuition / registration fees
		Primarily input-based	Primarily output-based		
		European Union			
B fr Universities *Hautes écoles*	pre-1980 1996	pre-1980 1996	(-) (-)	(-) 1995	pre-1980 pre-1980
B nl	pre-1980	pre-1980	(-)	1995	pre-1980
DK	1993	pre-1980	1980	1985	(-)
D	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
EL	1982	1982	1997	1982	(-)
E	1983	1983	(-)	1983	1983
F	1984	pre-1980	(-)	1984	pre-1980
IRL	pre-1980	pre-1980	(-)	pre-1980	1995
I	1993	1993	(-)	1993	1994
L	1997	(-)	1997	1997	(-)
NL	1985	pre-1980	1993	1983	1993
A	1993	(-)	(-)	pre-1980	(-)
P	1988	1994	(-)	1988	1997
FIN	1988	1986	1994	pre-1980	(-)
S	pre-1980	pre-1980	1993	(-)	(-)
UK	pre-1980	pre-1980	1992	pre-1980	1998
		EFTA/EEA			
IS	1990	1990	(-)	1997	pre-1980
LI	1992	1992	(-)	1992	pre-1980
NO	1991	1991	(-)	1988	(-)

(-) Not applicable Source: Eurydice

Belgium (B fr): Contract-based funding: only a small amount of contracts relate to teaching services.
Formula-based funding: although applicable to the *Hautes écoles* before 1980, this way of financing was extended in 1996.

Germany: Awarding of block grants and formula-based funding: the Higher Education Framework Act was amended in 1998 to allow for the introduction of block grants and formula-based funding.
Tuition/registration fees: in 14 of the 16 *Länder* no fees are charged. In 1996, only 2 *Länder* (Baden-Württemberg, Berlin) introduced registration fees.
In 1997 Baden-Württemberg introduced tuition fees for students extending the standard period of study by 2 years.

Greece: Formula-based funding: output-based financing has not yet been implemented.

Austria: Contract-based funding: passed in 1975 the law was extended in 1987.

Sweden: Awarding of block grants: since 1993/94 one single block grant has been awarded for undergraduate studies.

Norway: Output-based funding: this type of funding constitutes a negligible part of total funding.
Contract-based funding: although the use of this type of funding dates back to before 1980, regulations governing this type of funding were introduced only in 1988.

By the end of 1997, all countries, to a greater or lesser extent, had moved towards the allocation of funding in the form of lump-sum or block grants, representing substantially greater freedom for the institutions in the distribution of finance between different budget lines.

The often simultaneous introduction of formula-based funding replaced a reliance on past funding levels and heralded greater fairness in the distribution of finance between institutions. At the same time, these funding models facilitated government steering of course offers, with financial incentives for particular courses, such as those oriented towards skills in short supply. Most countries have adopted a completely input-based system, but Denmark, Greece, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom are also linking funding to specific outputs. Denmark and Sweden have gone one step further, linking it to actual student performance during the current year rather than a projection of this based on previous years' results.

Institutional enterprise and competition were further promoted by imposing the need to seek an increasing proportion of higher education finance through contract-based funding, whereby institutions, in addition to providing research, also offered their teaching expertise for a fee according to market/client needs. This phenomenon was evident in all countries excluding Germany. If contracts with central or regional government did not always involve competitive bidding, as did those with external, non-public organisations, a stimulus to efficiency and endeavour was often the close monitoring of their output.

Some countries further explored the tuition fees option for obtaining additional funding, and this manifested itself mainly in the form of substantial fee increases. As part of their increased autonomy, institutions were granted the right to decide on how this income should be used. Students were asked to pay for a higher proportion of educational costs in Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom. However, governments in these countries took great care that the levying of fees would not infringe on the right to equal access to higher education by providing adequate support for low-income families. It was a similar concern for equal access which was the spur to Ireland's abolition of student-paid tuition fees in the mid-1990s.

Quest for efficiency

Economic circumstances, such as the recession periods of the 1980s experienced by most of the countries considered and, for some, the need for financial stringency measures to meet the Maastricht criteria for European Monetary Union, took their toll on higher education financing. Integral to the shift towards new funding approaches as a way of dealing with this was the quest for cost-effectiveness and efficiency.

The aim of granting institutions greater autonomy and at the same time holding them accountable for the use of public funds was to increase efficiency in higher education.

In linking funding to output, institutions are rewarded for producing certain numbers of (employable) graduates within a given time-frame. In order to avoid wasting precious resources, institutions were encouraged to liaise with each other and the labour market in relation to course offers and study places. Some measures brought about changes in course structure, involving the shortening of courses or the introduction of intermediate qualifications. Under the increasingly popular modular systems, credit could be conferred in stages, facilitating course-switching without forfeiting recognition of attainment so far.

Another manifestation of the quest for efficiency is that certain government measures were aimed at improving study completion rates and times. Institutions were encouraged to improve information, ongoing support and guidance to reduce dropout.

For students, the relationship between financial support and progress came into being or intensified in a number of countries in the 1990s. In some countries, the availability of aid or the conditions attached to it are now subject to a time-limit, set during the last two decades. Others now link aid in the next year to performance in previous years. In some countries, students started to be financially rewarded for outstanding performance in combination with timely graduation.

An improved interface with economic life

The cultural shift in higher education also brought about increased interaction between institutions and their economic environment.

On the one hand, in most countries, this resulted from the inclusion of members of the business community on the institutions' management teams, sometimes an obligation imposed on them by the Government in tandem with the granting of greater independence from public authorities.

On the other, this resulted from higher education institutions' increasing exposure to market pressures. With institutions evermore dependent on the financial support of sponsors, students and consultancy contracts with the private and public sectors, institutions aimed to add employment value to their range of qualifications and gradually adapted courses according to external feedback and their increased awareness of the requirements of economic life. This close cooperation proved particularly beneficial to the development of certain regions, as in France, Finland, Sweden, United Kingdom, Iceland and Norway.

Interaction between higher education and economic life was further enhanced by including work placements in a rising number of study programmes. While vocationally oriënted courses had all along offered their students the chance to gain practical experience, universities now started to realise the advantage of such training to their graduates in the search for employment.

Bearing in mind the importance of life-long learning and the expansion of credit-based study programmes, which enable students of all ages to combine or alternate between study and employment, the interface between higher education and economic life is likely to be strengthened in the future.

QUALITY: A DEEPENING CONCERN

Devolution of power over the spending of their budgets to higher education institutions was accompanied by the introduction of a considerably more formalised process of quality evaluation.

In placing the responsibility for decision-making in a wider range of areas into the hands of higher education institutions, an emergent issue was how to balance greater institutional power with the need for accountability in their use of public funds and the maintenance of quality.

As government relaxed its reins on institutions in relation to budget spending choices, the focus of its actions became the maintenance of control, albeit at a distance, over the quality of their educational provision. In a number of countries, governments and institutions decided to solicit the support of the business and student community.

Since 1984, all countries studied [2] have introduced a systematic nationally-defined process of quality evaluation into higher education. In the 1990s, the emphasis was on taking the evaluation of teaching and learning out of the hands of the institutions alone. While self-evaluation is still an important feature of quality evaluation, it has evolved to incorporate peer review and comparative assessment on a national or cross-institutional basis.

All countries [3] installed a central monitoring agency to oversee, coordinate and follow up these activities. In the majority of countries, the resulting evaluation reports were made public while in a minority they were destined only for the Ministry or the institutional governing body. While these monitoring agencies were, in the majority of cases, non-ministerial, they generally had ministerial links enabling government steering through the setting of higher education standards. Only in the United Kingdom did the outcome of the evaluation have a bearing on the allocation of funding.

---

[2] In the French Community of Belgium, such a system is at the planning stage.

[3] In Liechtenstein, the size of higher education forbids such a move.

Table 2: Aspects of nationally defined systems for the evaluation of higher education institutions in place in 1996/97

Country	Year current process introduced	Evaluating body				Evaluation reports made available to	Central monitoring agency
		Institution concerned	Academic community	Business community	Students		
European Union							
B fr	(-)						
B nl	1991	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Public	*Vlaams Interuniversitaire Raad (VLIR)*
DK	1992	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Public	*Evalueringscenteret*
D	1991	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Public	Several agencies at *Land* level
EL	1997	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs	*Simvoulia Ekpedeftikis Aksiologissis ke programmatismou (CEPE)*
E	1995	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Public	*Consejo de Universidades*
F	1984	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Public	*Comité National d'Évaluation (CNE)*
IRL	1997	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Public	Higher Education Authority
I	1993	Yes	Yes	No	No	Ministry of Universities and Scientific and Technological Research	*Osservatorio per la valutazione*
L	1997						*Conseil national de l'enseignement supérieur*
NL	1993	Yes	Yes	No	No	Public	*Vereniging van Universiteiten (VSNU)* *HBO-raad, Vereniging van hogescholen*
A	1993	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Rector of institution concerned. In case of cross-university evaluations, reports are made public	*Fachhochschulrat* (for the *Fachhochschulen*) and *Universitatskuratorium* (for universities)
P	1994	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Public	*Conselho Nacional de Avaliação*
FIN	1991	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Public	*Korkeakoulujen arviointineuvosto*
S	1993	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Public	*Högskoleverket*
UK	1992	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Public	UK (E/W): as of 1997 Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA) UK (NI): till 1999 Department of Education Northern Ireland (DENI), thereafter Department of Higher and Further Education, Training and Employment (DHFETE) UK (SC): Scottish Higher Education Funding Council (SHEFC)
EFTA/EEA							
IS	1997	Yes	Yes	No	No	Public	Ministry of Education, Science and Culture
LI	1997	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Institution concerned	(-)
NO	1992	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Public	*Norsk institutt for studier av forskning og utdanning (NIFU)*

(-) Not applicable Source: Eurydice

Belgium (B fr): The Decree of 5 August 1995 provides for the introduction of self-evaluation at the *Hautes écoles*.

Germany: The individual *Länder* take different approaches.

Greece: The systems for self-evaluation and the evaluation by students are not yet fully implemented.

Spain:	Following the pilot programme 'Evaluation of the Quality of the University System' during the period from 1992 to 1994.
Italy:	Self-evaluation is mainly concerned with financial control.
Luxembourg:	A comprehensive evaluation system of public higher education is currently being developed.
The Netherlands:	There is only programme evaluation, but no institutional evaluation.
Norway:	In 1992, a 5-year pilot project was initiated by the Ministry of Education, Research and Church Affairs with nation-wide evaluations of five selected study disciplines (business administration, sociology, engineering, mathematics and music).

ACCOMMODATING A DIVERSE STUDENT BODY

The increased intake of students has had a marked influence on the diversity of students, entering or re-entering higher education at different stages of their lives, and has forced and will continue to force institutions to reconsider their admission policies and learning pathways to suit the varied expectations and life-styles of the student body.

Widening access

The policy of promoting participation in higher education by all citizens with the necessary capabilities is based on the knowledge that personal fulfilment in educational terms leads to social cohesion and cultural advancement and that a highly skilled workforce is a prerequisite for sustaining competitiveness in a global market.

In all countries studied, the standard basic requirement for entry to higher education was traditionally the successful completion of general upper secondary education. During the past 20 years, access was progressively widened for holders of vocational secondary qualifications and to mature-age students without traditional qualifications.

Policies to facilitate the participation of this second group in particular influenced the range of available routes into higher education, with the accreditation of prior experience, first and foremost, and the passing of special entry exams and access courses being added to the array of entrance criteria in some countries.

Quotas of places or target numbers were also set for this group or for adults in general, as in Denmark, Spain, Ireland, Portugal, Finland and Sweden[4], while Greece prioritised such students in admissions to certain courses in the event of high demand.

Inroads into life-long learning

The need to continually update and adapt the skills of the workforce in order to keep abreast of technological change has long been recognised as a prerequisite for maintaining a competitive edge in a global economy. For individual citizens, it is a determining factor in their level of participation in cultural, social and economic activities. The significance of life-long learning for European societies is enshrined in the Treaty of Amsterdam in the preamble to the Treaty Establishing the European Community. The signatories are:

> *'...determined to promote the development of the highest possible level of knowledge for their peoples through wide access to education and through its continuous updating.'*

A further measure of the importance of life-long learning European-wide is the inclusion of adult education and other educational pathways (Grundtvig programme) within Socrates II.

The traditional view of higher education as purely a follow-on from secondary education and preparation for first-time employment is increasingly challenged. Its role in the future will relate evermore to the continuing training of those possessing professional experience regardless of whether they are returners or first-time entrants to higher education.

Higher education provision for adults within or outside the employment network, however, calls for new educational structures flexible enough to enable students to compile programmes according to their needs and availability. Most higher education provision is still geared towards the young full-time student without any professional experience. Flexible programmes organised on a part-time, modular or distance-learning basis have encouraged the participation of those with the daily commitments of family or work. In order for higher education to make the necessary contribution to continuing education as a means of learning new (or updating old) skills, these inroads will have to be further explored.

---

[4] Adults admitted under this quotas of places in Spain and Portugal must also pass a special access test.

Admissions policies: a tool for managing student demand

The democratisation of access left governments and institutions with the task of matching rising demand from an increasingly diverse student body with limited institutional capacity. A general response to this was an expansion in the number of higher education places offered during the period, with more places being created mainly on vocationally-oriented courses at non-university institutions. In tandem with this expansion in institutional capacity, stringent selection criteria were imposed for admission to higher education in some contexts.

Several factors combined to influence changes in the selection of students at entry: institutional ability to expand in pace with the upsurge in student numbers, the institutions' obligation to become increasingly cost-effective with an eye to completion rates and times, the need to control the supply of certain professionals, and the concentrated demand for places on certain high-status specialist courses.

Entrance to courses such as architecture, dentistry, medicine, veterinary medicine and engineering was subject to increasingly stringent criteria in the majority of countries. In some cases, where a constitutional right to higher education exists for the holders of appropriate school-leaving qualifications, the limitation of places on these courses proved controversial and led to the testing of the legality of this in court.

Only four countries recorded major changes in selectivity for university courses. With demand outgrowing supply, Italy and Liechtenstein ended open access, leaving Austria and Luxembourg as the only two countries maintaining this policy. Denmark and Norway were able to relax their admission procedures due to the creation of new study places and new policies to redistribute applicants to institutions with spare capacity[5].

---

[5] Greece is expected to relax its admission policies by the year 2000 due to the increased provision of study places.

Spain, on the other hand, was forced to tighten selection as it had not yet managed to sufficiently increase capacity in response to demand.

The non-university vocational sector presents a different picture with only Belgium granting open access. All countries which during the period under consideration established a vocationally-oriented higher education sector opted for high selectivity. Since these courses are tailored more closely to the needs of the labour market, effective selection at entry guarantees the suitability of candidates not only for their chosen studies but also for the relevant professional career.

Table 3. Selectivity at entry to higher education in 1980/81 and 1996/97

Non-university vocational sector

	B fr	B nl	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO
1980/81			●	○	(-)	(-)	●	●	(-)		○	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	●	○	○	●
1996/97			○	○	●	●	●	●	●	○	○	●	●	●	(-)	●	○	○	○

University sector

	B fr	B nl	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO
1980/81	○	○	●	○	●	○	○	●			○		●	●	●	●	○	○	●
1996/97	○	○	○	○	●	●	○	●	○		○		●	●	●	●	○	○	○

Selective for no courses ○ Selective for some courses ● Selective for most courses

(-) Not applicable Source: Eurydice

The table does not include specialised courses in art, music and sport as access to these courses is subject to aptitude tests in all participating countries, except France which grants open access to sports programmes.

STRUCTURAL RENEWAL OF HIGHER EDUCATION

The introduction and progressive strengthening of a vocational higher education sector and the surge in open and distance education have added a new dimension to the academic landscape previously dominated by on-site university teaching and research.

The restructuring of higher education was one of the most active areas of reform, originally linked to the expansion of higher education. In addition, rapid technological change created a particular need for more higher education courses in the technical and commercial field which the traditional universities were initially reluctant or unable to cater for. This, in the majority of countries, has led to the establishment of vocational/technological institutions, introducing a binary divide between a more research-oriented university sector and a more vocationally-oriented non-university sector. Within the higher education systems in 1998, such a divide was present in all countries except Sweden, the United Kingdom and Iceland.

Vocational/technological higher education often had its origin in post-secondary education which had been upgraded by extending its length and intensifying the course content and by setting a relevant qualification structure in place. In many cases, vocational institutions were merged in order to create multi-disciplinary entities comparable in size to universities. The constant demand for this type of education from students and the business community alike, was at the heart of endeavours to raise the status of non-university education and put it on an equal legal footing with universities.

At the same time universities, which had so far paid less attention to the employability of their graduates, came under pressure to rethink their course offer in relation to content and length of study. The general trend favours the division of university programmes into independent cycles, each providing the student with the possibility of obtaining a degree. At the end of each cycle students are free to choose to continue with more research-centred studies or to enter the job market.

These moves are proof of a gradual, if albeit slow, process of convergence observed for first degree courses and their qualifications between the university and non-university higher education sectors, a rapprochement that has opened up new inter-institutional pathways for many students.

The introduction or reinforcement of open and distance learning was another significant factor influencing the structure of higher education, proving particularly advantageous to mature-age students. Programmes were divided into separate modules and their successful completion recognised by credits which could be accumulated over time to obtain a degree. The advantages of a modular structure not only to distance learning but also to on-site teaching were soon recognised by an educational community intent on promoting academic mobility. The transferability of study attainments in the form of credits opened up many pathways between institutions in different sectors and countries and made an essential contribution to the internationalisation of higher education.

EUROPEAN AREA OF HIGHER EDUCATION

The political will to promote a Europe of Knowledge with its specific European system of higher education formed the basis for the Sorbonne Declaration and the Declaration of Bologna.

Since the adoption of the first Community action programme on education in 1976, the European Community, at the instigation of the European Commission, has again and again shown its interest in promoting exchange of information and cooperation within Europe. Nowadays, the Socrates programme, with its higher education arm Erasmus, forms an integral part of the educational landscape in all EU and EFTA/EEA countries as well as a growing number of the Central and Eastern European Countries (CEECs). Its positive impact on countries' mutual understanding with respect to educational issues, the promotion of European-wide cooperation and mobility, and the improvement of transparency and recognition of study attainments throughout the Community is invaluable.

In May 1998, four individual Member States (Germany, France, Italy and the United Kingdom) took an unprecedented initiative and issued a declaration on the harmonisation of the architecture of the European higher education system. The four signatories commit themselves to encouraging a common frame of reference aimed at improving external recognition of degrees and facilitating student mobility and employability.

Other European countries were quick to react to this declaration and only a year later, in June 1999, the Ministers of Education of 29 countries (15 EU, 3 EFTA/EEA, 10 associated CEECs and Cyprus) met in Bologna to sign a Joint Declaration on the European Higher Education Area. They commit themselves to coordinating their educational policies during at least the first decade of the new millennium to achieve the following objectives '*...of primary relevance in order to establish the European area of higher education and to promote the European system of higher education world-wide*':

- adoption of a system of easily readable and comparable degrees
- adoption of a system essentially based on two main cycles
- establishment of a system of credits
- promotion of mobility of students, teachers, researchers and administrative staff
- promotion of European cooperation in quality assurance
- promotion of the necessary European dimensions in higher education, particularly with regards to curricular development, inter-institutional cooperation, mobility schemes and integrated programmes of study, training and research.

The development of this European Higher Education Area should thus consolidate European Community efforts oriented towards creating a favourable climate for enhanced cooperation in this field.

HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE EUROPE OF TOMORROW

With the expectation that the globalisation of the economy and technological renewal will exercise ongoing influence on European societies, the role of higher education in educating individuals with varied interests and ambitions to become responsible citizens in a democratic context and in creating an adaptable workforce can only continue to grow. The plans for future reforms communicated by the participating countries suggest the reinforcement of existing trends, including:

- widening access to students of all age groups
- promoting quality
- strengthening interaction with the business community
- promoting the economic relevance of course offers
- dividing programmes into distinct, independent cycles, each culminating with a specific degree
- modularisation of programmes and the intensified use of credit schemes
- enhanced transferability between institutions and programmes within and across national boundaries
- enhancing the readability and comparability of qualifications
- promoting life-long learning.

Higher education institutions will be asked to contribute to the local economy which in turn will be able to offer employment to their graduates. Public involvement in higher education management will be further reduced, while increasing its foothold in quality assurance and control. The diversity of educational provision will be scrutinised in relation to its economic relevance by students and business alike and, last but not least, institutions will be encouraged to respond to the needs of mature-age students who wish to acquire specific new skills or reinforce old ones relevant to their professional and personal lives. The major challenge for higher education in the future will be striking the right balance between the advancement of research and development, in which it must continue to play a central role, and continual adjustment to labour market requirements.

CONTENTS OF THE STUDY

PREFACE 3
TABLE OF CONTENTS 5
GLOSSARY 9

Part I: Comparative analysis of higher education reforms between 1980 and 1998 11

Introduction 13
1. Scope of the study 13
2. Definitions 16
3. Structure of the study 17

Chapter 1: Legislation for Change 19
1.1. The focus of legislation and published policy 20
1.2. The relationship between legislation, policy and change 27
1.3. Systems with few reforms 31
1.4. Overview of reforms 33
Annex - Country tables 35

Chapter 2: Management, Finance and Control 87
2.1. The responsibilities of the main actors 88
  2.1.1. The State 88
  2.1.2. The higher education institutions 88
2.2. Reforms in the financing of institutions 93
  2.2.1. The awarding of block grants 95
  2.2.2. Formula-based funding 95
  2.2.3. Contract-based funding 97
  2.2.4. Tuition/registration fees 98
2.3. Quality assessment and control 100
2.4. Overview of reforms 104

Chapter 3: Access and Wastage 107
3.1. Reforms in higher education admission procedures 107

3.1.1. Changes in the selectivity at entry to higher education 107
3.1.1.1. Changes in the locus of responsibility for the selection process 111
3.1.1.2. Changes in selection criteria applied 112
3.2. Widening access 114
3.2.1. Access for mature-age students without traditional qualifications 114
3.2.1.1. Accreditation of prior experience 116
3.2.1.2. Quota of places 117
3.2.1.3. Special entry exam 117
3.2.1.4. Access courses 118
3.2.1.5. Flexible programmes/open university/distance learning 118
3.2.2. Access for applicants with vocational school-leaving qualifications 119
3.3. Measures to reduce wastage 120
3.3.1. Information and guidance 122
3.3.2. Introduction of shorter or modular courses 123
3.3.3. Financial incentives for institutions 124
3.3.4. Financial incentives for students 124
3.4. Overview of reforms 125

Chapter 4: Financial Aid to Students 127
4.1. Cash benefits in the form of grants and/or loans 127
4.2. Subsidised services 130

Chapter 5: Curriculum and Teaching 133
5.1. The curriculum 133
5.1.1. Factors underlying change 134
5.1.1.1. Devolution of responsibility for course planning 135
5.1.1.2. Closer links with the labour market 137
5.1.2. Policy developments related to reforms of course structure and content 140
5.1.2.1. Establishment of a non-university, vocational higher education sector 141
5.1.2.2. Merging of vocationally-oriented institutions and upgrading of courses 142
5.1.2.3. Introduction of shorter initial university degree courses 144
5.1.2.4. Introduction or reinforcement of flexible modular credit-based courses 146
5.2. Teaching and assessment 148
5.2.1. Teaching 149
5.2.1.1. Increased emphasis on the pedagogical competence of teaching staff 149
5.2.1.2. Larger teaching groups 151
5.2.1.3. New teaching methods 152
5.2.1.4. Increased use of information and communications technology 152
5.2.1.5. Work experience as course element 153
5.2.2. Assessment 154
5.2.2.1. Introduction of new assessment methods 154
5.2.2.2. Increased frequency of assessment 154
5.3. Overview of reforms 155

Chapter 6: Internationalisation 157
6.1. European Union and other multilateral programmes 158
6.2. Government/national strategies 160
    6.2.1. Legislation and policy documents 161
    6.2.2. Establishment of national in support of internalisation agencies 163
    6.2.3. Special funding for institutions 163
    6.2.4. Financial aid or other support for students 164
    6.2.5. Other measures to promote student exchanges 165
6.3. Institutional initiatives 165
    6.3.1. International offices or administrators 166
    6.3.2. Language courses and courses delivered in foreign languages 167
    6.3.3. Integration and support for foreign students 167
    6.3.4. Internationalisation of curricula 167
6.4. Overview of reforms 168

Chapter 7: Conclusions and Future Perspectives 171
7.1. Catalysts for reform in higher education 171
    7.1.1. Increase in demand 171
    7.1.2. Restrictions on public spending 172
    7.1.3. Globalisation of economies 172
    7.1.4. Technological progress 173
    7.1.5. Decentralisation 173
7.2. Areas of reform in higher education 173
    7.2.1. Convergence 174
        7.2.1.1. Structure of higher education 176
        7.2.1.2. Management, finance and control 177
        7.2.1.3. Access and wastage 178
        7.2.1.4. Financial aid to students 178
        7.2.1.5. Curriculum and teaching 178
        7.2.1.6. Internationalisation 179
    7.2.2. Divergence 180
        7.2.2.1. Structure of higher education 180
        7.2.2.2. Management, finance and control 180
        7.2.2.3. Access and wastage 181
        7.2.2.4. Financial aid to students 181
        7.2.2.5. Curriculum and teaching 181
7.3. Future perspectives 182

Bibliography 185

Part II: National descriptions of higher education reforms between 1980 and 1998 Available on CD-ROM (see end of the book) 187

Introduction 189

Acknowledgements 191

European Union

- Belgium 195
    - French Community 200
    - Flemish Community 210
- Denmark 217
- Germany 237
- Greece 265
- Spain 281
- France 311
- Ireland 343
- Italy 359
- Luxembourg 385
- Netherlands 397
- Austria 419
- Portugal 441
- Finland 455
- Sweden 471
- United Kingdom 489
    - England, Wales and Northern Ireland 489
    - Scotland 513

EFTA/EEA

- Iceland 523
- Liechtenstein 539
- Norway 549

EURYDICE, the information network on education in Europe

The **EURYDICE** Network produces reliable, readily comparable information on national education systems and policies. **EURYDICE** also acts as an observatory, highlighting both the diversity of systems and their common features.

Working on behalf of policy-makers and the world of education, **EURYDICE** prepares and publishes:

- regularly updated descriptive analyses of the organization of education systems;
- comparative studies on specific topics of European interest;
- indicators on the various levels of education from nursery to higher education.

EURYDICE also has its own database, **EURYBASE**, which constitutes a further highly detailed reference source on education systems in Europe.

By circulating the results of its work, **EURYDICE** promotes better mutual understanding of these systems and the common issues that run through them.

Established in 1980, **EURYDICE** has been an integral part of Socrates, the Community action programme in education, since 1995. The Network comprises National Units and a European Unit. National Units set up by the corresponding education ministries now exist in 29 countries, namely the 15 EU Member States, the three EFTA/EEA countries, ten central and eastern European countries and Cyprus. These Units provide and check the basic information needed to sustain network activity. The Brussels-based European Unit set up by the European Commission is responsible for management of the network, co-ordination of its activities, preparation of the comparative analyses, and database creation and administration.

EURYDICE on the Internet – http://www.eurydice.org

EURYDICE

EURYDICE, the information network on education in Europe

The EURYDICE Network produces reliable, readily comparable information on national education systems and policies. EURYDICE also acts as an observatory, highlighting both the diversity of systems and their common features.

Working on behalf of policy-makers and the world of education, EURYDICE prepares and publishes:

- regularly updated descriptive analyses of the organisation of education systems;
- comparative studies on specific topics of European interest;
- indicators on the various levels of education from nursery to higher education.

EURYDICE also has its own database, EURYBASE, which constitutes a further highly detailed reference source on education systems in Europe.

By circulating the results of its work, EURYDICE promotes better mutual understanding of these systems and the common issues that run through them.

Established in 1980, EURYDICE has been an integral part of Socrates, the Community action programme in education, since 1995. The Network comprises National Units and a European Unit. National Units set up by the corresponding education ministries now exist in 29 countries, namely the 15 EU Member States, the three EFTA/EEA countries, ten central and eastern European countries and Cyprus. These Units provide and check the basic information needed to sustain network activity. The Brussels-based European Unit set up by the European Commission is responsible for management of the network, coordination of its activities, preparation of the comparative analyses, and database creation and administration.

EURYDICE on the Internet - http://www.eurydice.org